Building Interests in a Career in Teaching

Among Latina/o Students at a Charter School

by

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ABSTRACT

Teacher shortage crisis were consistent across the nation. Higher education institutions, K-12 school districts, and political leaders were actively seeking solutions to ensure classrooms did not sit vacant and were not staffed by individuals who are unqualified to teach. This mixed methods action research study examined one strategy for teacher recruitment by targeting high school students who attended a Title 1 school. Due to the growing Hispanic population in Arizona, coupled with the underrepresentation of Hispanic teachers compared to the number of Hispanic students, a particular focus was devoted to targeting Hispanic high school students as they represented a potential untapped pipeline of future educators. The study was conducted to explore factors that might increase student interest in declaring education as a major upon graduating from high school and eventually pursuing teaching as a career. Three theoretical frameworks guided the study: (a) Theory of Planned Behavior, (b) Self-Efficacy, and (c) Social Cognitive Career Theory. A total of 20 participants engaged in the intervention over the course of three weeks. The intervention included engagement in curriculum exposing students to the teaching profession as well as clinical experiences. Data gathered included pre- and post- intervention survey results and semi-structured interview questions. It was anticipated the intervention would increase students' interest in becoming a teacher. Results demonstrated a decrease in intention post-intervention. Future research should examine alternative recruitment approaches for students who do not already have an interest in pursuing the profession.

DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to seven groups of people who gave me the courage and strength I needed. I love you all.

To my mother, Rachel. At 16 years old you were faced with a life changing decision. Thank you for choosing me. You sacrificed your dreams so I could have my own. Thank you, mom, for all that you endured so I could one day fulfill my goals.

To my son, Teddy. Teddy, you give your mama purpose. I hope I can make you proud and inspire you to shoot for the stars one day my little man.

To my siblings, Jaquelyn, Jesus, Ariana, and Ryan. We've been through it all with one another. Your support and encouragement over the years have been a guiding light.

To Marcos, thank you for stepping into my life and becoming my father. Your strength provided the stability I needed to stay on this path.

To Nana, Tata, and Tio Ralphie, you gave me the courage to dream. I know you're looking down from heaven proud. I love you.

To Tia Booch, thank you for always being my number 1 fan and supporting my dream no matter what it is.

Last but certainly not least, to my love, Jesse. You are my rock. Our journey is only beginning, and I know that I will be able to face anything with you by my side.

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Chapter 1

LEADERSHIP CONTEXT AND PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

Although I was the first in my family to attend college, it took many years before I came to understand the complexities that would propel me into a new array of experiences, an array that most of my peers from the south side of Tucson never encountered. It wasn't until I took a college course on inequalities within the education system that I began wrestling with this looming reality.

Upon taking this course, I was convinced my role in combatting educational inequity would result in me practicing law. Then, on a fateful day, I walked past the Memorial Union at Arizona State University and stumbled across a Teach for America (TFA) poster. Before I knew it, I committed two years of my life to teaching. I came to believe that educating the minds of the future would in fact serve as the catalyst in reducing inequities perpetuated by the cycle of poverty. I entered the classroom wholeheartedly ready to mold the trajectory of every student I encountered. Yet, my youthful optimism clashed with reality, and like many TFA teachers, I left the classroom after only two years. I struggled to understand how I could achieve the momentous changes I desired while I was constrained to a four-walled classroom.

After leaving the teaching profession to contribute towards more macroscopic solutions, I became consumed with the daunting teacher shortage crisis that plagued Arizona, particularly as it related to minority teachers. My frustrations did not appear to be unique. Teachers around the state began to unite. News outlets began to highlight the devastating shortage. Institutions began to focus advocacy efforts around improving the conditions for teaching in Arizona. I was energized to do something. As I contemplated

what role I could play in this statewide epidemic, reality hit me. I contributed to the teacher shortage. I had become a statistic, a new teacher who left the classroom before her skillset was fully mastered. The epiphany was overwhelming, and the only path forward to understand where I could play this role was to head back to the classroom. My hope in returning was that I would once again be able to effect real change and that I would be able to inspire my students to one day become teachers.

National Teacher Shortage

Teaching has served as an immensely rewarding career. It is a profession that has had profound impact on others' lives. Yet, despite the fulfillment it has brought to many, the profession has demonstrated its share of overwhelming and stressful factors that have resulted in individuals leaving a profession they deeply loved and respected. The number of teachers who have fallen into the category of "leavers," or teachers who exited the profession prior to retirement has continued to increase. In fact, it has been shown that "less than one-third [of attrition] is due to retirement," (Carver-Thomas & Darling-Hammond, 2017, p. 10). Additionally, the nation has experienced an 8% teacher attrition rate annually, which accounted for nearly "90% of the teacher demand," (Carver-Thomas & Darling-Hammond, 2017, p. 1).

Various factors have contributed to teachers leaving the profession. Among those having the greatest influence were dissatisfaction with testing and accountability mandates (25%), unhappiness with school administration (21%), and dissatisfaction with the teaching career (21%) (Carver-Thomas & Darling-Hammond, 2017).

In addition to the high rates of attrition, the number of individuals willing to enter the profession has continued to decrease. According to a recent study by ACT (2014),

"from 2010 to 2014, the number of ACT-tested high school graduates interested in education majors or professions decreased by more than 16%" (p. 3). A 2016 survey conducted by researchers at the University of California at Los Angeles published similar findings in the Chronicle of Higher Education. The survey showed only 4% of the nation's incoming freshman indicated that they would major in education, compared to 9.5% only ten years earlier (Backgrounds and Beliefs of College Freshman, 2017).

Although the teacher shortage has been a common challenge nationwide, research results have demonstrated this issue to be increasingly prevalent in schools with certain characteristics. According to several studies, schools with higher concentrations of low-income students of color faced greater challenges in retaining and recruiting qualified teachers than schools with predominantly Caucasian student populations (ACT, 2014; Carver-Thomas & Darling-Hammond, 2017; Dee & Goldhaber, 2017). In a comprehensive study of teacher shortages, Carver-Thomas and Darling-Hammond (2017) found that Title 1 schools experienced a 50% greater likelihood of teacher turnover as compared to non-Title 1 schools. They also found that turnover rates increased to 70% for mathematics and science teachers at Title 1 schools.

Moreover, they observed teacher turnover increased in schools with higher concentrations of students of color. For instance, the authors found teacher turnover rates were 70% higher in schools that primarily served students of color, and turnover rates increased to 90% for mathematics and science teachers, 80% for special education teachers, and 150% for teachers with alternative certification in these same schools (Carver-Thomas and Darling-Hammond, 2017). Similarly, Dee and Goldhaber (2017) found a "...50 percentage point increase in the share of students who are black implies an

increase of 3.4 percentage points in the share of classes taught by teachers without licenses…" (p. 9). In other words, classrooms with high number of black students were more likely to be taught by teachers who lacked adequate teaching credentials.

Arizona's Teacher Shortage

Teacher shortages have varied by state due to differences in teaching conditions across regions and localities. Factors such as salary, teacher certification requirements, per-pupil spending, and state education policies contributed to this variation. Arizona has consistently ranked unfavorably in most categories, and most recently, the state ranked as the worst state in which to teach according to one study (Bernardo, 2017).

One contributing factor was pay. Arizona consistently had ranked among the lowest in the nation for teacher pay (Carver-Thomas & Darling-Hammond, 2017; Hunting, Reilly, Whitsett, Briggs, Garcia, Hart, & Spyra, 2017). According to a recent report by the Morrison Institute on the state of education in Arizona, results revealed that Arizona teachers earn on average $12,000 less than their peers (Hunting et al., 2017). In their report, Hunting et al. found the average national elementary teacher salary was $55,800 whereas the average Arizona elementary teacher salary was $40,860. This meant that Arizona ranked the lowest for elementary teacher pay in the nation when adjusted for statewide cost-of-living (Hunting et al., 2017). Further, Arizona secondary teacher salaries ranked 49th out of 50th nationwide with the average national secondary teacher salary at $58,030 and the average Arizona secondary teacher salary at $46,070 (Hunting et al., 2017).

The state of teaching in Arizona has been in disarray, which has been evidenced in massive teacher shortages. According to the 2017 survey administered by the Arizona

School Personnel Administrators Association, which included 172 school districts and charter schools, there were 1,968 vacant teacher positions and an additional 3,403 positions where teachers did not meet standard teacher certification requirements as of December 2017 (Arizona School Personnel Administrators Association, 2017).

Similar to national trends, fewer students in Arizona were selecting a major in education. At Arizona State University, for example, there was nearly a 50% decline in undergraduate students who enrolled in the Mary Lou Fulton Teachers College from 2004 to 2017 (ASU Enrollment Trends by College, 2018). Similarly, the rate of students who were awarded degrees from the Teachers College has declined by approximately 50% from 2008 to 2017 (ASU Degrees Awarded by College, 2018). Not only are fewer individuals pursuing and graduating from the Teachers College, teacher attrition rates have spiked in Arizona. According to an analysis by the Morrison Institute, 42% of Arizona teachers hired in 2013 were no longer teaching in an Arizona public school by 2016, and 22% of the teachers hired between 2013 and 2015 were not teaching in Arizona after one year. Even more staggering were teacher turnover rates among teachers in Arizona charter schools where 52% of those hired in 2013 left within three years (Hunting et al., 2017).

Arizona has attempted to combat the teacher shortage crisis with policies and propositions aimed to increase teacher funding. For instance, Proposition 123 was crafted by Governor Ducey's administration to settle a funding lawsuit (KTAR, 2016). The Proposition was passed and allocated $3.5 billion to K-12 education over 10 years (KTAR, 2016). The most recent proposition effort to address funding for education, specifically for teacher salaries, was the renewal of Proposition 301, which was set to

expire in 2020 (Cano, 2018). The measure did not add additional funding for K-12 education. Rather, it extended the existing sales tax that was set to expire (Cano, 2018). Instead of presenting the proposition to the voters with the option of increasing the sales tax up from the current 0.6 cents, the legislature passed a bill during the 2018 legislative session to extend the current tax to 2041 (Cano, 2018).

While there have been statewide funding efforts, these attempts have yet to address the overall concerns of the education community. For example, A local grassroots movement, RedforEd, has galvanized the education community to demand more funding from the state legislature and the Governor. The movement exemplified dissatisfaction with the state of education in Arizona when close to 50,000 teachers and education advocates marched in protest at the state capitol (Altavena, Beard Rau, Cano, Castle Gardiner, Longhi, MacDonald-Evoy, et al., 2018).

In addition to financial initiatives, Arizona leaders have proposed alternative pathways to teaching as a remedy to the teacher shortage. During the 2016-2017 legislative session, for example, the legislature passed policies that reduced restrictions for teacher certification with the goal of removing barriers for aspiring educators (Senate Bill 1042, 2017). Critics have argued that Arizona teacher certification requirements were already flexible, and by removing minimal qualifications, fewer qualified educators would be placed in classrooms (AzCentral, 2017). More recently, Governor Ducey launched a joint initiative with the three state universities to create the Arizona Teacher's Academy, which served as a program to recruit new teachers into the profession.

Growing Teaching Demand

As the demand for teachers has continued to increase, attention to recruitment and retention strategies has never been more critical. In fact, the National Center for Education Statistics estimated that by 2022, the United States will need 13% more teachers due to the growing student population (Hussar & Bailey, 2014). Similarly, the Bureau of National Labor Statistics projected there will be 1.9 million teaching jobs open between 2014 and 2024 (Vilorio, 2016). In Arizona, teacher recruitment and retention has been and will continue to be vital in the coming years.

Recruiting Teachers of Color

Although the nation has been experiencing a teacher shortage overall, there has been particular concern with respect to recruiting and retaining teachers of color (White House Initiative on Educational Excellence for Hispanics, 2016). The gap between minority and Caucasian teachers has continued to persist (Ingersoll & May, 2011). In a study conducted by Hansen and Quintero (2017), minority teachers accounted for less than 20% of all public school teachers whereas minority students account for nearly 50% of all students. Results from ACT (2014) highlighted this concern as data revealed that of those who took the 2014 ACT exam, the overwhelming majority, 71%, of students who were interested in pursuing education as a major were Caucasian whereas only 56% of 2014 ACT test-takers were Caucasian.

The present study focused particular attention on the underrepresentation of Hispanic teachers in the classroom. Research results have demonstrated “the Hispanic population is the nation’s largest, youngest and fastest growing minority population”

(Hispanic Teacher Recruitment). While a growing population, the U.S. Department of Education's School and Staffing 2011-2012 Survey noted that Hispanic teachers only represented 7.8% of the teaching profession (Cox, S., Parmer, R., Strizek, G., and Thomas, T, 2016). Similar to national trends, Arizona has yet to achieve a balance in teacher-student diversity as evidenced by the state's student and teacher makeup. In Arizona, 44% of students were Hispanic, yet only 14% of teachers were Hispanic (Hunting et al., 2017). The Arizona teacher shortage coupled with the Hispanic teacher shortage has resulted in a pressing call to action to identify strategies that would yield greater numbers of Hispanic students choosing to enter the teaching profession.

Importance of representation in the classroom. The importance of teachers of color being in the classroom has been a topic of consequence throughout the nation since the 1980s (Carnegie Forum on Education and the Economy, 1986; Cole, 1986; Graham, 1987; Irvine, 1988; Mercer and Mercer, 1986; Witty, 1986). Early on scholars identified the need to focus on the disparity between the number of students of color as compared to the number of teachers of color and its educational ramifications for the future.

Researchers have argued teachers of color act as role models for all students (Cole, 1986; Graham,1987; Mercer and Mercer,1986; Miller and Endo, 2005; Milner, 2006; National Collaborative on Diversity in the Teaching Force, 2004; Pitts, 2007). Similar to Bandura's notion that vicarious experiences can improve self-efficacy, Milner (2006) concluded students "see the possibilities of their futures by the mentoring and role modeling" of their teachers who look like them. Cole (1986) argued students of color needed teachers of color "to learn respect for [minorities] in roles of authority and to see them as examples of competent professionals" (p. 334). In a study of pre-service teachers,

Miller and Endo argue that students "…needed teachers with whom they could identify culturally, racially, ethnically, and perhaps linguistically" (p. 7). Students in their study indicated having a teacher of color as a child could have made a difference in their education (Miller and Endo, 2005). Additional studies argue that even White students benefit from having teachers of color. For example, Graham (1986) claimed, "black teachers are also vital role models for non-black students who need to learn the same lesson: that black adults can be successful and contributing members of society," (p. 599). Despite these findings claiming teachers of color serve as role models, Villegas and Irvine (2010) cautioned this claim due to limited empirical evidence for the argument.

Not only have researchers found teachers of color to act as role models for students, studies also reveal that teachers of color are more likely to engage in restorative discipline practices. In their study, Roch, Pitt, and Navarro (2010) examined policy tools to empirically test how racial and ethnic makeup affects school disciple outcomes. They found in schools with more teachers of color, there were fewer incidences of punitive disciplinary practices such as expulsions and out-of-school suspensions. Instead, they claimed, "in schools with greater representation, we are more likely to observe disciplinary practices that involve a greater rehabilitative component—such as in-school suspensions and the use of alternative school settings" (p. 53). These scholars attributed this finding to teachers creating more, positive social constructs for students who shared their same ethnic background.

Additional research suggested teachers of color increased academic outcomes and school experiences for students of color (The National Collaborative on Diversity in the Teaching Force,2004; Villegas and Irvine, 2010). The National Collaborative on

Diversity in the Teaching Force (2004) found teachers of color served as cultural brokers who helped minority students navigate educational environments and positively influenced minority student academic outcomes. Villegas and Irvine (2010) examined attributes resulting in teachers of color achieving higher student academic outcomes. They suggested minority teachers overwhelmingly had high expectations of students, used culturally relevant teaching approaches, developed trusting relationships with students, confronted issues of racism in their teaching, and served as advocates and cultural brokers. Although they acknowledged this relationship, Villegas and Irvine (2010) argued for high student achievement to occur, minority teachers still needed to possess in-depth content knowledge they shared with their students. Moreover, Villegas and Irvine noted minority teachers were more likely to remain in the schools most difficult to serve, which "lead[s] to continuity to the learning experiences of minority students" (p. 187). Milner (2006) suggested positive academic outcomes were a result of teachers of color being able to make learning culturally relevant. Milner (2006) stated these teachers can, "understand [their students of color] and their experiences inside and outside of school. They use cultural knowledge about the students' home community to build and sustain relationships with them" (p. 100). Further, in their review of literature, Quiocho and Rios (2000) concluded teachers of color were able to support their students in academic outcomes because of the trust and connections they fostered with their students. These teachers were able to use their experiences with discrimination to empathize with students of color, and to bring these discussions into the classroom. They stated,

> The teachers' social subordination around race, class, gender, and immigration experiences was a significant means of establishing empathy with their ethnic minority students. More important, however, the teachers in this study were able to create and facilitate classroom discussions regarding how 'subordination and conflict' can be managed. (p. 497)

In a study of 50,000 students, Cherng and Halpin (2016) suggested minority students had more favorable perceptions of minority teachers. Notably, their data also demonstrated that similar to minority students, Caucasian and Asian students were more likely to have more favorable perceptions of minority teachers as compared to Caucasian teachers. The authors concluded the likely reason for this finding was that minority teachers were more likely to "translate their experiences and identities to form rapports with students that do not share the same race or ethnicity" (Cherng and Halpin, p. 416).

Minority teacher recruitment efforts. Given the growing need to recruit teachers, and particularly teachers of color, institutions around the nation have developed strategies for minority teacher recruitment. Several studies have illustrated the power of grow your own programs and recruiting teachers from the community in which these individuals resided (Boyd et al., 2004; Goldhaber et al., 2014; Reininger, 2012; The U.S. Department of Education White House Initiative on Educational Excellence for Hispanics, 2017). In one example, Western Oregon University's Bilingual Teacher Scholars Program sought to increase minority, bilingual teachers among interested high school and community college students in their local community. In another program, California Mini-Corps, former migrants students or those who had experiential knowledge of migrant family lifestyle, were targeted for teacher recruitment. Students

were recruited as early as their senior year in high school, and program participants acted as tutors for migrants in local school districts.

Other minority recruitment programs emphasized pre-collegiate recruitment. The National Education Association recommended identifying early prospective teachers in high school through implementing summer college preparatory programs, instituting school surveys and workshops, holding targeted recruitment activities, and increasing financial aid and scholarship incentives for teachers of color. In the Pathways2Teaching program, a partnership between Denver, Colorado school districts and Eastern Oregon University, students of color were targeted through engagement in weekly field experiences with elementary students. This provided opportunities for students to earn college credits and urged students to examine educational inequities. In another example, Today's Students, Tomorrow's Teacher program out of New York, school-based mentoring was conducted to recruit and mentor culturally diverse and economically challenged high school students who were interested in pursuing teaching. This program had nearly 880 participants across the United States and 150 teachers in nine states.

Alternative teacher recruitment programs such as Teach for America (TFA) have placed value on diversifying their teacher pool. In fact, TFA's incoming corps members have continued to become more diverse over the years. Nearly 50% of TFA corps members identifying as individuals of color in 2015 as compared to 31% nearly 10 years prior (Teach for America Growing More Diverse, 2015). TFA has been one of the largest alternative teacher recruitment programs in the United States and recruited highly motivated and high achieving college students to teach in low-income schools for two

years. TFA has existed for 27 years, had approximately 55,000 alumni and current corps members, and placed members in 53 regions across the United States.

Non-minority teacher recruitment programs. There are additional examples of teacher recruitment programs that targeted a broader pool of potential teachers. It was not to say minority teacher recruitment was not a priority of these organizations, but their mission was not solely targeted at minority teacher recruitment. Each of these programs maintained its own requirements for adminssion and varied with respect to when students were recruited. For instance, Future Teachers of America has introduced top-performing high school students to careers in teaching. The Early College High Schools Initiative sponsored by the Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation has introduced teaching academies throughout the country. High school students participating in this program were able to earn college credits in introductory education courses. For example, the New York Future Teacher Academy based on the Early College High School Model allowed these students to take college credit education classes and participate in a teaching internship during their senior year of high school. Finally, Educators Rising, a nationally acclaimed teacher preparation and recruitment program, has served high school students who aspired to be teachers. The program was designed to meet the unique needs of each local setting across the United States and offered programs ranging from one to two years. Educators Rising is a member of the National Coordinating Council of Career and Technical Students Organization and has created micro-credentials for students who complete the course curriculum. More than 2,400 high schools have joined the Educator's Rising Network throughout the nation serving more than 53,000 students (Educators Rising What We

Offer, n.d.). Further, 27 states have become official Educators Rising affiliates (Educators Rising What We Offer, n.d.).

Re-imaging Teaching

As a result of the teaching shortage crisis, among other factors, a recent movement to re-imagine the teaching profession has been undertaken. The Mary Lou Fulton Teachers College (MLFTC) has been a leader in this movement and has begun to create a new educator workforce model that re-imagines teacher preparation as a whole (Basile, 2017). As part of the re-design, the model for teaching has moved away from the 30 students to one teacher model and placed a focus on establishing a team of education experts to meet students' personalized needs (Mishra, 2018). Although this movement in re-imagining the educator workforce model may have a profound impact on teacher experiences, this study was focused on strategies to recruit individuals into the profession. Thus, the study does not incorporate strategies around this effort.

Purpose of the Study and Research Questions

The purpose of the study was to implement and assess the effectiveness of a teacher recruitment/preparation curriculum intervention on minority high school students' aspirations and intentions to become educators. The intervention took place over the course of three weeks in the summer of 2018 at Western School of Science and Technology with incoming juniors and incoming seniors. Students attended the summer intervention program four hours a day for seven days over a three-week period. The intervention incorporated direct instruction, learning activities, and clinical experiences. The intervention is described in detail in Chapter 3. Several research questions (RQ) guided the project and have been presented below.

RQ 1: What perceptions of the teaching profession were held by Hispanic high school students who attended a Title 1 school?

RQ 2: How and to what extent did perceptions of the teaching profession for Hispanic students in a Title 1 school affect their desire to become a teacher?

RQ 3: For Hispanic students in a Title 1 school, how and to what extent does personal experiences with teachers affect their desire to become a teacher?

RQ 4: How and to what extent did targeted recruitment messages and exposure to the teaching field influence perceptions of the teaching profession among Hispanic high school students who attended a Title 1 school?

RQ 5: How did previous teachers' race and ethnicity affect motivation to teach among Hispanic students who attended a Title 1 school?

Chapter 2

THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES AND RESEARCH GUIDING THE PROJECT

In Chapter 2, I have provided research related to students' interests and motivations with respect to becoming teachers. Additionally, I have described theoretical frameworks and related research that were critical in supporting the project.

Research about Motivation for Becoming a Teacher

For decades, researchers across the world have examined what motivated individuals to become teachers. Although outcomes showed motivations have varied across studies, results have favored altruism as a driving factor for engaging in the teaching profession (Alexander, Chant, & Cox, 1994). For instance, Alexander et al. analyzed nearly 400 of 800 essays written by applicants to the Postgraduate Diploma in Education class, a preservice secondary school teacher qualification program. One essay component sought to understand the motivations that influenced students' pursuit of the teaching profession. The authors observed students had a strong desire to impart knowledge to others. Similarly, Fokkens-Bruinsma and Canrinus (2014) conducted a study using the FIT scale with preservice Dutch teachers and 168 secondary and 53 elementary teachers. The authors found that shaping the future of children and adolescents was among the top motivations to teach. This finding was surprising to the researchers because in an earlier study, Bruinsma (2007) results suggested primary teachers were motivated to become teachers because they wanted to be with and teach children whereas secondary teachers were driven by their interest in their subject area.

Another study using the Factors Influencing Choice (FIT) scale assessed motivations to become a teacher and perceptions of the teaching profession among preservice teachers from Australia, the United States, Germany, and Norway. Results demonstrated the following factors were rated highest with respect to motivations: intrinsic value, perceived teaching ability, the desire to make a social contribution, the ability to work with children and adolescents, and having had prior teaching and learning experiences (Watt, Richardson, Klusmann, Kunter, Beyer, Trautwein, & Baumert, (2012). Findings were consistent across countries for these core motivations.

In another study, Thomson, Turner, and Nietfeld (2012) utilized cluster analysis procedures to identify typologies of prospective teachers and their motivations. The authors found a combination of intrinsic, altruistic, and extrinsic motivational factors that contributed to preservice teachers' pursuit of the teaching profession. All participants expressed having multiple categories of motivations for pursuing the profession. Similar to Bruinsma's (2007) finding, Thomson et al. found primary preservice teachers were driven by motivations to interact with children, whereas secondary preservice teachers were motivated by content area.

Theoretical Perspectives Influencing the Project

Three theories guided this study: Bandura's (1997) model on Self-Efficacy, Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT) proposed by Lent, Brown and Hacket (1994, 1996), and the Theory of Planned Behavior as articulated by Ajzen (1985, 1991, n.d). In the following sections, I have described each theory, provided examples of research that utilized the theoretical framework, and described how the theoretical framework influenced the study.

Theory of Planned Behavior

Icek Ajzen's (1985, 1991, n.d.) Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) served as a guiding framework for the present study. The TPB was formulated around intention and behavior. Behavior was referred to the observable action and resulted as a, "function of compatible intentions and perceptions of behavioral control" (Ajzen, n.d.). Intentions are used to "... capture the motivational factors that will influence a behavior … [and the] stronger the intention ... the more likely should be its performance," (Ajzen, 1991, p. 181). Intention also spoke to the readiness to perform a behavior and served as the immediate influencer over whether a behavior occurred (Ajzen, n.d.). Perceived behavioral control has been shown to moderate intentions, while intentions and perceptions of behavioral control had primary effects on behavior (Ajzen, n.d.).

In the following section, I have described the three key aspects of the TPB, which included (a) how behavioral beliefs influenced attitude toward the behavior, (b) how normative beliefs influenced subjective norms, (c) and how control beliefs affected perceived behavioral control. In turn, attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control influenced intention, which ultimately affected behavior. See Figure 1 for the relations among these variables.

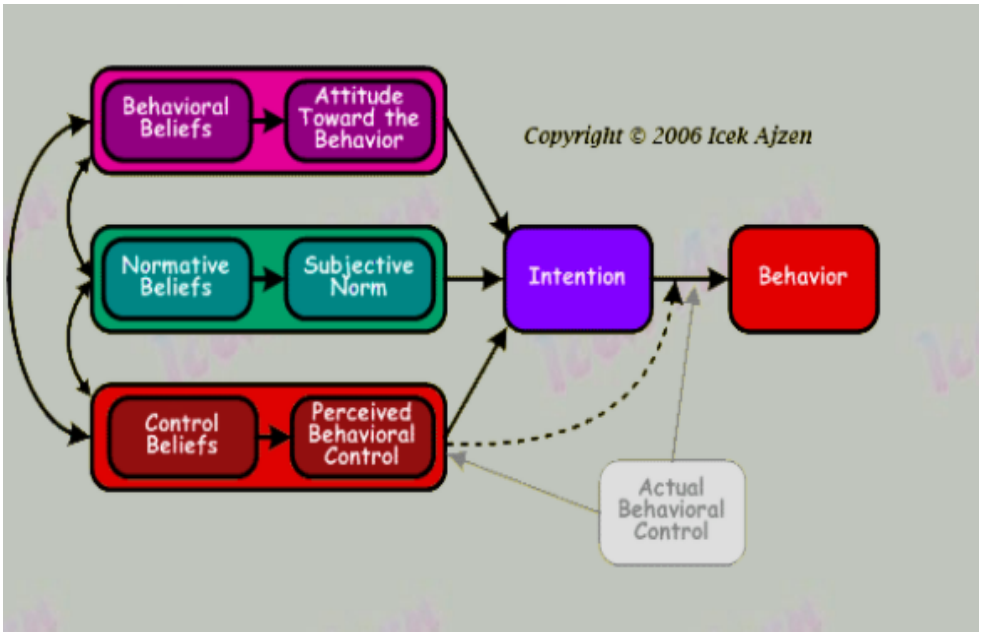

Figure 1: This figure represents the constructs of the Theory of Planned Behavior. This figure was used by permission of Dr. Ajzen.

Behavioral beliefs. Behavior beliefs were directly affected by expected outcomes. In other words, this was a subjective belief about the person's ease or difficulty in performing a certain behavior and the value of the associated outcome (Ajzen, 1991). According to Ajzen (n.d.) people can hold many beliefs, but only a few may be accessible at a given moment. When these beliefs and the subjective value of the outcome interact, an attitude towards the behavior was developed (Ajzen, n.d.). In terms of the present study, high school student participants were provided with the opportunity to teach their peers, which helped to inform the expected outcome of teaching. Teaching outcomes could be associated with factors such as students' understanding of lesson material or student behavior. This component of the intervention was highly encouraged, so even if the student perceived difficulty in executing the task, and had low intention of teaching, they still engaged in the activity. This experience, in turn, had the potential to

influence study participants' attitudes toward the behavior if the outcome was perceived positively.

Attitude toward the behavior. According to Ajzen (n.d.), "attitude toward a behavior is the degree to which performance of the behavior is positively or negatively valued." Moreover, attitude towards behavior was determined by the number of accessible behavioral beliefs linking the behavior to outcomes (Ajzen, n.d.). The strength of each belief was weighted by the evaluation of the outcome. In the case of teaching, for example, the student may have engaged their beliefs around pay, workload, or respect of the teaching profession to develop their attitude. Atkinson's (1994) theory of achievement motivation was most compatible with this construct because it "attempts to account for the determinants of the direction, magnitude, and persistence of behavior…" (Atkinson, 1994, p. 240). If a person anticipated high rates of success in the behavior, the individual was likely to have a more favorable attitude towards the behavior, which increased intention (Ajzen, 1991, n.d.).

Normative beliefs. According to Ajzen (n.d.), "normative beliefs refer to the perceived behavioral expectations of such important referent individuals or groups as the person's spouse, family, friends, and ... teacher, doctor, supervisor, and coworkers." Normative beliefs were, in essence, the behavioral expectations held by important influencers in an individuals' life. In certain cases, the influencer's importance was confined to the local context and may not have been a family member or close friend. The motivation to comply with the normative beliefs of referent individuals or groups contributed to the subjective norm discussed below. The present study did not explicitly measure normative beliefs.

Subjective norms. The subjective norm "is the perceived social pressure to engage or not engage in a behavior" (Ajzen, n.d.)**.** Subjective norms were influenced by accessible normative beliefs regarding the expectations of important referents (Ajzen, n.d.). The greater the strength of the normative belief, coupled with the motivation to comply with the referent, the more likely the individual was to pursue the behavior. In the present study, participants were to have the opportunity to gain perspective and advice from incoming TFA corps members, but scheduling did not permit this interaction. Instead, the intervention incorporated activities and lessons that attempted to present compelling information regarding the impact teaching makes in students' lives. While not necessarily a social pressure, these activities incorporated stories from the field that were meant to elicit subjective norms.

Control beliefs. According to Ajzen (n.d.), "control beliefs [are related to] the perceived presence of factors that may facilitate or impede performance of a behavior." The factors, combined with how they may influence performance, resulted in perceived behavioral control. In the context of the intervention, control beliefs could be the cost associated with pursuing a teaching degree compared to the salary. If students believe they might have a higher debt to income ratio, due to the gap between degree cost and salary, they may haven chosen to avoid teaching.

Perceived behavioral control. Perceived behavioral control referred specifically to how individuals perceived their ability to execute a behavior, similar to self-efficacy. Whereas, attitude toward the behavior was influenced by accessible behavioral beliefs, the perceived behavioral control was influenced by accessible control beliefs. For instance, the ability to manage behavior may have been a control factor for some

students. If the students believe they did not possess enough knowledge of this skill set, and this factor was highly important in their perspective, they may doubt their ability to manage a classroom. Hence, this would have resulted in a decreased likelihood of intention to pursue teaching. The strength of the control belief was weighted by the control factor and has been used to predict behavior (Ajzen, n.d.). The present intervention sought to mitigate such a scenario by employing a scaffolded curriculum approach by which students were incrementally exposed to the field of teaching and important skillsets necessary to successfully execute a lesson. Further, students were supported in developing and implementing components of a lesson, which resulted in designing a full lesson. This scaffolded approach was implemented to increase confidence and perceived behavioral control over various control factors that may have been of previous concern. Unfortunately, as results demonstrated, the brevity of the intervention resulted in less time to practice and internalize concepts related to developing and executing a lesson plan and adversely affected students' sense of perceived behavioral control.

Related Research on the Theory of Planned Behavior

Although Thompson, Turner, and Nietfeld (2012) did not explicitly address TPB in their study, they claimed, "motivation and beliefs about teaching greatly influence teachers' future classroom practices, including strategies for delivering instruction, as well as persistence and engagement in instructional tasks and commitment to teaching" (p. 332). Thompson et al. suggested individuals entered teaching based on altruistic motivations and initial beliefs about teaching, but ultimately discontinued their efforts because of the realities faced once in the classroom. Thompson et al. suggested, "teacher-

training programs do not always provide sufficient field-based experiences for [preservice teachers] which could adequately prepare them for the complex psychological and pedagogical nature of teaching, especially high-quality teaching" (p. 333). As a result, their recommendation was to ensure their behavioral beliefs, attitude towards beliefs, control belief, and perceived behavioral control matched the actual realities of teaching.

Self-Efficacy

Bandura (1997) defined self-efficacy as beliefs about one's own capabilities with respect to levels of performance. Self-efficacy, as described by Bandura (1997), influenced how people thought, felt, motivated themselves, and behaved. High levels of self-efficacy enhanced individuals' successes and beliefs in their capabilities. As a result, Bandura (1997) suggested these same individuals were more likely to take on challenging tasks and pursue opportunities that others viewed as threats. Individuals with high levels of self-efficacy set challenging goals, persisted in the face of failure or setbacks, and attributed failure to insufficient knowledge that can be acquired and overcome (Bandura, 1997). In contrast, those with low levels of self-efficacy did not feel confident in their ability to achieve success and were more likely to forgo pursuing opportunities that were perceived to be unattainable. Self-efficacy beliefs were acquired and modified via four primary sources of information, which were based on learning experiences. The four sources of efficacy information were (a) personal performance accomplishments (i.e., mastery experiences), (b) vicarious learning, (c) social persuasion, and (d) physiological and affective states (Bandura, 1997).

Personal performance (mastery experiences). Personal performance, or mastery, requires resiliency in overcoming obstacles. Bandura suggested this facet of self-efficacy was needed to ensure individuals understood sustained effort, persistence and perseverance was crucial to success. As a result, initial failure, which was followed by successful experiences, increased self-efficacy because the individual became better at the task, and experienced mastery experiences.

Vicarious learning. According to Bandura (1997), self-efficacy increased as individuals were exposed to vicarious experiences derived by observing social models. This component of self-efficacy was founded on the successes and failures of others. It assumed witnessing the success of someone similar to an individual would inspire higher levels of self-efficacy. Thus, individuals used the successes of the similar model (or person) as the foundation for the belief that they too possessed the qualities, skills, and talent to achieve similar successes. In turn, this element of self-efficacy indicated the failures of a person who was similar to the individual would decrease levels of self-efficacy, causing the person to question their capabilities. According to Bandura, the greater the presumed similarity, the more persuasive were the model's successes and failures. Thus, if individuals perceived the model to be dissimilar to themselves, their self-efficacy was less likely to be affected. Moreover, Bandura claimed, "People seek proficient models who possess the competencies to which they aspire. Through their behavior and expressed ways of thinking, competent models transmit knowledge and teach observers effective skills and strategies for managing environmental demands" (p. 3).

Social persuasion. Bandura (1997) proposed verbal persuasion through social pressures could strengthen or decrease self-efficacy. Individuals who received verbal reinforcements that they possessed the capabilities to master an activity were far more likely to pursue, and exert greater effort, in executing the implementation of the activity. Bandura noted social persuasion, or verbal boosts to one's self-esteem, did not possess the strength to increase self-efficacy alone.

Physiological and affective states. Finally, Bandura (1997) acknowledged the important influence that physiological circumstances had on self-efficacy, and that emotional, physical and mental states immensely affected one's perceptions of capabilities. Positive emotions increased self-efficacy, and one's confidence levels, whereas stress or negative emotions resulted in a reduction in their endeavors. For instance, if an athlete were to break a leg, this could impact her self-efficacy more so than other variables as the physical circumstance would become a direct hindrance towards engaging in physical activity.

Related Research on Self-Efficacy

Over five decades of work have been conducted around Bandura's theory of self-efficacy, which has led to the development of theories such as Social Cognitive Career Theory. Hackett and Betz (1981) utilized this model to conceptualize women's career development in terms of self-efficacy. In the model, the authors postulated women's social experiences provided very limited information in the four areas that Bandura (1997) indicated informed self-efficacy. This resulted in a lack of personal efficacy, which led many women to forgo career opportunities. For instance, women were less

likely to see other women in professions to which they aspired. As a result, they had limited exposure to vicarious experiences.

Researchers in the field of education advocated for examination of variables that influenced teacher self-efficacy as a means to increase student achievement. A study conducted by Guo, Justice, Sawyer, & Tompkins (2011) examined how teacher variables such as teaching experience, perceptions of teacher collaboration, and teacher influence and classroom, student engagement characteristics predicted pre-school teachers' self-efficacy. The study resulted in two major findings. The first was the strong positive correlations between teachers' self-efficacy and teachers' sense of community. The second was a significant interaction between teachers' perceptions of staff collaboration and children's engagement in predicting self-efficacy.

Social Cognitive Career Theory

Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT) emerged as a unique theoretical framework because it was developed by consolidating several theories related to self-efficacy and career theories. Lent, Hackett, and Brown (1994) suggested that the social science field would benefit from "theory-building efforts that ... bring together conceptually related constructs ... to more fully explain outcomes that are common to a number of career theories ... and account for the relations among seemingly diverse constructs" (p. 80). Additionally, SCCT differed from other career theories because it integrated features of the social, physical, and cultural environment of individuals. Although SCCT integrated many different theories, the most notable was the reliance on Bandura's (1986) Social Cognitive Theory, which served as the foundation for the framework. Further, SCCT was aligned closely to Bandura's (1996) "triad reciprocal

model of causality," in which he argued that rather than the person and environment having equal influence on behavior, the person's actions directly influenced their situations, thoughts, and subsequent behaviors (Lent et al., 1996).

In its development, proponents of SCCT adopted three central variables which were viewed as the foundational building blocks of career development: self-efficacy, outcome expectations, and personal goals. In addition to these variables, SCCT was comprised of three models: interest, choice, and performance (Lent et al., 1994; Lent, Brown, & Hackett 1996). Each of the three models contained socio-cognitive mechanisms that influenced career development. The Interest Model illustrated how academic and career choices were formed. The Choice Model illustrated how interest, and other variables, promoted choice, or personal goals. Finally, the Performance Model demonstrated how choices influenced performance, and thus the persistence of other choices. These models have been discussed in the next section.

Interest model. Lent et al. (1994) associated SCCT's interest component with interest and outcome expectations. Within this Interest Model, Lent et al. (1994) proposed 12 causal and sequential pathways that acted as socio-cognitive determinants of career interests, involvement, and skill acquisition. These pathways have been illustrated in Figure 2.

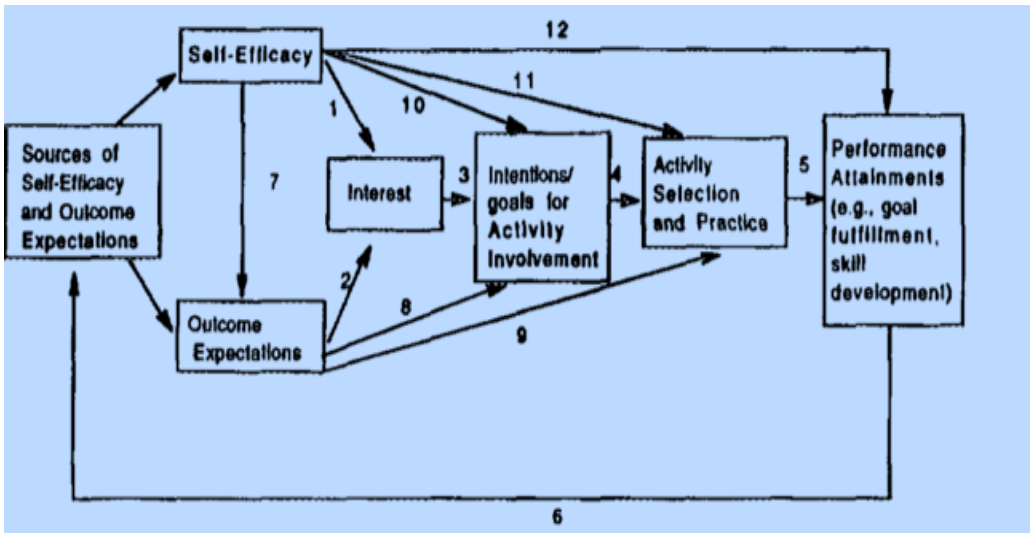

Figure 2: Model of how basic career interests developed over time. Copyright 1993 by R. W. Lent, S. D. Brown, and G. Hackett. Reprinted by Permission.

Based on this Interest Model, Lent et al. posited peoples' environments exposed them to a myriad of activities and people that influenced potential career relevance. Through repeated engagement, individuals "...develop personal performance standards, form a sense of their efficacy in particular tasks, and acquire certain expectations about the outcomes of their performance" (Lent et al., 1994, p. 89). As individuals found more successes in activities, they were more likely to develop an interest (Lent et al., 1994). Through emerging interest, persons were more likely to develop goals and intentions to pursue further activity related to the career (path 3), which led to increased likelihood of future engagement in activities related to the career (path 4). As interest and engagement developed and persisted, individuals experienced success or failures (path 5), which drove perceptions of self-efficacy and outcome expectations (path 6). Through repeated cycles of exposure and engagement in the career related activities, individuals began to solidify their beliefs in self (self-efficacy), which led to solidifying career interests. It

should be noted, however, that SCCT assumed that the person and environment were ever-changing, which allowed for changes in career goals and choice (Lent et al., 1996).

Choice model. Lent et al.'s (1994) Choice Model was developed based on Krumboltz and associates' Career Choice Intention and Entry Behavior framework and was an extension of their own Interest Formation Model presented in Figure 1. The Choice Model, as illustrated in Figure 3, although similar to Figure 2, shifted the focus on goal setting and activity engagement to represent career choice goals, or intentions, and their enactment. Figure 3 suggested,

> self-efficacy and outcome beliefs ... [result] in interest (path 1 and 2). Interest, in turn, promote ... career choice goals [intentions and plans] (path 3), which increase the likelihood of choice action [or engagement in the career] (path 4) then lead to… [performance and achievement or failure] (path 5), which may support or weaken efficiency and outcome percepts (path 6) and, ultimately choice persistence ... Outcome expectations may exert a direct effect on choice goals (path 8) and actions (path 9). (p. 95)

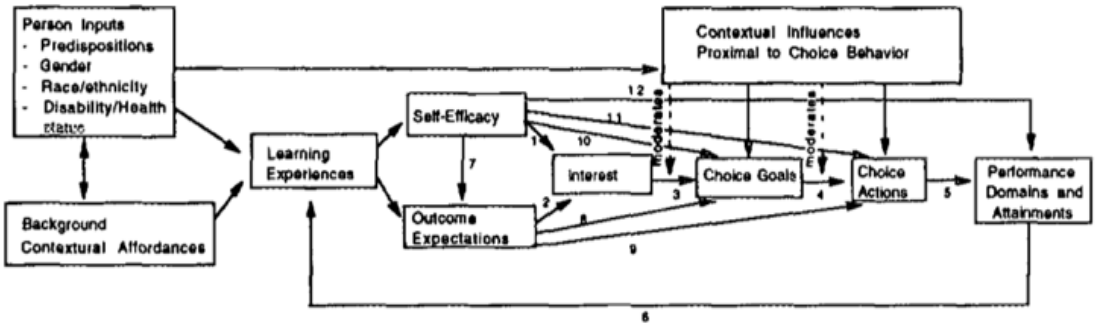

Figure 3: Model of person, contextual, and experiential factors affecting career-related choice behavior. Copyright 1993 by R. W. Lent, S. D. Brown, and G. Hackett. Reprinted by permission.

The Choice Model incorporated three phases of choice development: (a) the expression of choice goals (or intentions), (b) actions taken to pursue said goals, and (c) attainment of successes or failures, which ultimately affect the choices made in one's career development (Lent et al., 1994).

Lent, et al. (1994) maintained the belief that actions resulting from choice were less a function of one's environment and more a result of the self-career goals that arose from, "self-efficacy, outcome beliefs, and interests…," (p. 94). Further, they argued choice was heavily influenced by actual experience in the career and the individual's perceived capabilities.

Performance. Lent et al. (1994) defined performance to include the level of accomplishments and behavioral persistence. Drawing from Bandura's self-efficacy model, Lent et al. (1994) asserted performance attainment was derived from self-efficacy. The basic tenants of the Performance Model were that career goals (choice goal) influenced performance goals, such as the types of grades students wished to attain, which ultimately regulated the behavior, such as amount of time studying or types of colleges to which they applied. Figure 4 highlighted the connections between, "...self-efficacy, outcome expectations, performance goals, and task attainment level," (Lent et al., 1994).

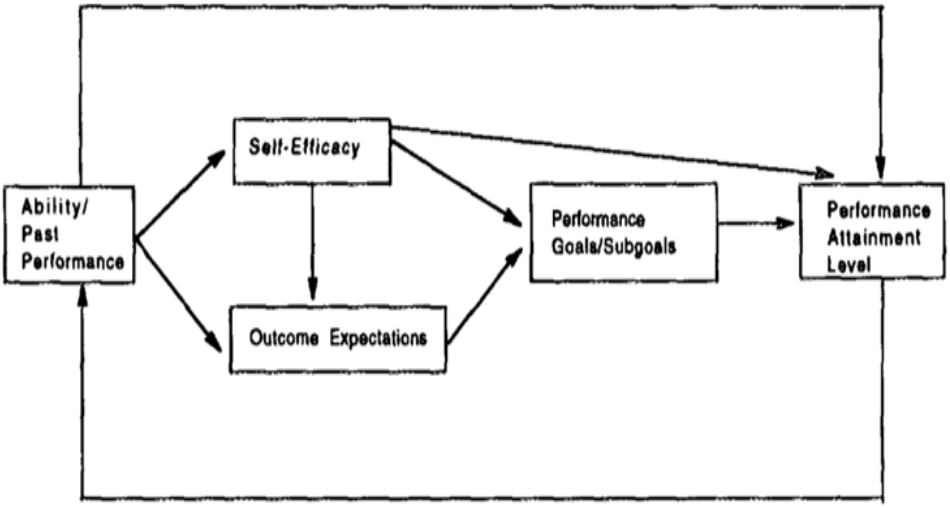

Figure 4: Model of task performance, highlighting the roles of ability, self-efficacy, outcome expectations, and performance goals. Copyright 1993 by R. W. Lent, S. D. Brown, and G. Hackett. Reprinted by permission.

Studies Based on Social Cognitive Career Theory

Schaffner and Jespen (1999) conducted a study in which they analyzed whether the SCCT constructs accounted for outcomes in a minority teacher recruitment study for urban and rural at-risk youth. In the study, the researchers hypothesized that race and ethnicity, coupled with the students' environment and exposure, would influence self-efficacy for teaching and outcome expectations associated with teaching. Self-efficacy and outcome expectations were further hypothesized to influence interest in teaching as a career, which would in turn lead to teaching career intentions. Nearly 250 minority high school students participated. Four major constructs were integrated into the recruitment program: teaching self-efficacy beliefs, outcome expectations, interest in teaching, and intention of becoming a teacher. Results demonstrated a strong correlation between self-efficacy and interest, but there was no evidence that indicated outcome expectations influenced interest. Instead, outcomes directly influenced choices, which differed from the SCCT model. Overall, results from this study suggested SCCT provided some useful

explanation for the career intentions of minority students who participated in the teacher recruitment program.

A study conducted by Flores, Navarro, and DeWitz (2008) utilized the SCCT framework to understand Mexican American high school students educational goal aspirations and expectations. More specifically, the study was conducted to examine whether there were differences in acculturation. It was hypothesized that Anglo-oriented acculturation, college self-efficacy, and college outcome expectations would be positively associated with high educational aspirations and expectations. Results indicated that gender and generational differences were not present with regard to educational aspirations and expectation. Nevertheless, participants reported higher educational aspirations than expectations; the results indicated that Anglo-oriented acculturation had positive effects on aspirations and expectations. However, neither Anglo-oriented nor Mexican-oriented acculturation was significantly related to self-efficacy and college outcome expectations.

Chapter 3

METHOD

In this chapter, I have provided a description of the methods used for this study. I have included information about the setting, participants, role of the researcher, intervention, instruments, and data analyses in this study.

Setting

The study took place at Western School of Science and Technology (WSST), a charter school in the Phoenix, Maryvale neighborhood. WSST served grades seven through twelve and had 563 students enrolled in the 2017-2018 school year. Of the students, the grade breakdown was as follows: seventh grade 127 students, eighth grade 108 students, ninth grade 118 students, tenth grade 101 students, eleventh grade 59 students and twelfth grade 50 students. Nearly all, 94%, of students qualified for free and reduced-price lunch, making WSST a Title 1 school. The majority of students attending were Hispanic/Latino, 98%, with 1% Caucasian, and 1% African American. Of the 29 teachers, 11 were Hispanic, 2 were African-American, 16 were Caucasian and 1 identified as Native American.

WSST had aspired to become the first A-rated high school in Maryvale, a traditionally underserved, low-socioeconomic neighborhood in West Phoenix. To achieve this, WSST has adopted the following Mission:

> A Challenge Foundation Academy exists to transform Maryvale by improving low-income west Phoenix students' opportunities for advancement in the global technological economy by providing needed preparation for the academic rigors of college graduation leading to career success.

Historically, the Maryvale neighborhood has been known for crime, violence, and extreme poverty. In a study by the Center for Violence Prevention and Community Solutions at Arizona State University, researchers found that 93.2% of Maryvale residents did not have a college diploma, and of these individuals, 37.3% had less than a high school diploma (Wiletsky et al., 2007, p. 11). With only 6.8% of Maryvale residents having a bachelor's degree or higher, there was a great opportunity to focus on "grow your own" professional talent pipeline programs (Wiletsky et al., 2007, p. 11). The age makeup of Maryvale was relatively young compared to other areas, with 37%, of residents under the age of 18 years (Wiletsky et al., 2007). This also provided great opportunities for programs targeted at developing local talent to improve the economic health and overall well-being of the community, where 17% of residents lived in poverty (Wiletsky et al., 2007). Finally, over half, 58%, of residents were Hispanic, which created an even greater need for increased number of Hispanic teachers who were willing to teach, and continue teaching in the community (Wiletsky et al., 2007).

Participants

Participants were recruited from the incoming junior and senior cohorts at WSST. Students in these grade levels were considering next steps after high school and were in the process of narrowing down colleges and majors. This population was intentionally targeted due to the relevancy and timeliness of postsecondary choices. In all, 21 participants were engaged in the study.

Role of Researcher

During the intervention period, I was a contracted teacher at WSST. As such, I had direct and ongoing access to participants. Although I did not teach these specific age

groups, the students were familiar with me as a WSST teacher. Therefore, for the purposes of this research project, I assumed the role of an insider. I delivered the instruction to the students and played a very active role in all components of their experiences with respect to the project.

Intervention

The intervention was based on a national curriculum used to recruit and train high school students to become teachers. For the purposes of anonymity, the national organization has requested that their name not be used in the present study. The organization will be given a pseudonym and will be referred to as "intervention curriculum" or "intervention organization" throughout the remainder of the study.

Several thousand schools around the nation have joined the intervention organization and were utilizing the curriculum. As a result, thousands of students have been exposed to the teaching profession prior to entering college through the efforts of the organization. The organization created its curriculum with the support of the National Education Association and the American Federation of Teachers to emphasize the fundamentals of teaching practices. The curriculum has been developed to be customizable and has functioned as a one to two-year program, elective, or even a career and technical program of study. Three major components defined the curriculum: (a) instructional materials, (b) resources for clinical experiences, and (c) materials for teacher leader training and support.

The instructional materials are separated into five domains with a total of 60 lessons. The domains included the following categories: You, Your Students, Your Classroom, Your Community, and Your Profession. Domains represented foundational

components of the teaching profession, but their implementation was not limited to a certain scope and sequence. Each lesson plan within the domain provided explicit instruction for delivery using best practices and supplemental resources and activities. Lessons could be taught in either one period, three periods, or five periods, and materials varied based on the length of time selected. For the purposes of this study, only the one–period lesson plan option was used.

Due to time constraints of the study, the intervention curriculum was condensed with permission from the intervention organization, to both accelerate and maximize overall exposure to the teaching profession. The intervention curriculum included lessons from each of the five domains and consisted of a total of 20 lessons, covering one-third of the overall curriculum.

The lessons were chosen based on two factors: (a) a comparison between Secondary English Education Major Maps from the Mary Lou Fulton Teachers College, and (b) lessons focusing on the technical skillset of teaching. For example, although the "anti-bullying" lesson was certainly considered to be important in the overall context of teaching, it did not focus on the technical components required to teach. Therefore, it was not included.

According to the Secondary Education major map, students were required to take a total of 120 credit hours, or 41 classes, over four years. The researcher categorized the 120 credits into several thematic areas and then compared these thematic areas to the domains and lessons of the intervention curriculum. The Mary Lou Fulton Education Courses fell into one of the six themed areas: general education, educator identity, teaching practices, content knowledge, student development, and field experiences. Of

the 41 classes, 28 courses were aligned with the intervention organization's curriculum. Of the 28 aligned courses, five courses were connected to the "You" domain, 17 fell into the "Your Classroom" domain, four were related to the domain "Your Students," two connected to the domain "Your Profession," one fell under the domain "Your Community," and four fell into a non-domain core category, clinical experiences. While clinical experiences were not an original component of the national curriculum, teaching experiences were included in the intervention. See Table 1 for details. A few of the Teacher College courses were related to multiple domains within the category.

For the purposes of the present intervention, the following number of lessons were chosen per domain as shown in column 3 of Table 1.

Table 1

Intervention Adapted Curriculum

Domain	Lesson Topic	Number of Lessons	Number of Courses Aligned in Secondary Education Map
You	-My Teacher Persona; -What are Responsive Classrooms?	2	4
Your Students	-Cultural Competence -Asset-based Approach	2	4
Your Classroom	-Backwards Planning - Curriculum 101 -Using Data to Inform Instruction -Norms/routines -Social and Emotional Safety -Eliciting and interpreting student thinking -Managing Small Group work -Values based behavior management -Specifying/reinforcing student behavior -Designing lessons & sequence of lessons -Setting learning goals -Explaining and Modeling content -Differentiated instruction -Student Engagement	14	17
Your Community	Collaborative Planning	1	1
Your Profession	Profiles of Effective Educators	1	2

The connection between these lessons and the Secondary Education English Major Map has been presented in greater detail in Appendix A. To illustrate the connections, consider the following example. The MLFTC course, TEL 101: Professional Educators Series is similar content to the curriculum for this project by focusing on the "You" domain from the national curriculum. See Table 2 and Appendix A for complete details.

Table 2

Connection of Major Map to National Curriculum "You" Material for the Project

Course	Teaching Related	Theme	Alignment with Intervention Curriculum
TEL 101: Professional Educators Series Introduces professional topics such as design-thinking, character and moral development, professional identity, and legacy-minded thinking and actions.	Yes	Educator Identity	You

The intervention took place over the course of three weeks during summer school. Students attended summer school two days per week for four hours each day during the first two weeks. They attended school three days per week for four hours each day during the third week of summer school.

Due to last minute changes with summer school teachers, students participating in the program did not serve as small group instructors or engage in one-on-one conversations with teachers; thus, the schedule fluctuated slightly. Rather than small

group instruction, students were grouped into teams of two and were required to co-teach a lesson to their peers in the intervention course. Teams were provided several state standards from either English Language Arts or Mathematics from which to base their lesson. Students were required to deconstruct state standards into objectives and deconstruct objectives into daily lessons. Participants were given a lesson plan template to support them in creating their own lessons. The template contained a section for objectives, differentiation strategies, checks for understanding, activities, materials, and assessments. Participants had 30 minutes to execute their lessons and were required to provide the materials needed for the implementation. Each participant was required to deliver a portion of the lesson, and the teams were responsible for managing behavior during their lesson. Upon completion of the lesson, the participants received feedback from their peers and the researcher.

Although changes did occur in the type of clinical experience, the daily schedule outlined in Table 3 was followed as closely as possible. During the first two hours, students received direct instruction related to the intervention curriculum. The third hour provided students with a clinical experience. The first few sessions of clinical experience provided time for participants to prepare their lesson plans and accompanying materials. The final sessions of clinical experiences provided the opportunity for participants to deliver their lessons to their intervention peers. The final hour of the day ended with a final lesson from the curriculum. By the completion of the intervention, students completed a total of 20 instructional hours, which equated to 20 lessons, four per domain. Students also completed seven hours of clinical experiences, which were scaffolded to include (a) observing a teacher and (b) providing direct instruction to their intervention

peers. Due to scheduling conflicts with summer school teachers, participants were unable to have guided conversations with these educators about the profession.

Overall, the intervention was conducted as shown in Table 3.

Table 3

Intervention Design

Week 1 Overview: 6 lessons, 2 observations

Day	Hours	Activity
6/11	8:30 - 9:30	1 lesson • My Teacher Persona
	9:35-10:30	Observation
	10:30-12:30	2 lessons • What are Responsive Classrooms • Profiles of Effective Educators
6/12	8:30 - 9:30	1 lesson • Cultural Competence
	9:35-10:30	Observation
	10:30-12:30	2 lessons • Asset-based Approach • Values Based Behavior Management

Week 2 Overview: 6 lessons, 1 observation

Day	Hours	Activity
6/21	8:30 - 10:30	2 lessons • Backwards Planning • Designing Lesson and Sequence
	10:30-11:30	Lesson Planning clinic
	11:30-12:30	1 lesson • Managing Small Groups

6/22	8:30 - 9:30	1 lesson • Norms and Routines
	9:35-11:00	Lesson Planning Clinic
	11:00-12:30	2 lessons • Using data to inform instruction • Setting Learning Goals

Week 3 Overview: 8 lessons, 2 teaching opportunities

Day	**Hours**	**Activity**
6/25	8:30 - 9:30	1 lesson • Student Engagement
	9:35-10:00	Lesson Planning Clinic
	10:00-10:30	1 lesson • Explaining and modeling content
	10:30-11:00	Lesson Planning Clinic Continued
	11:00-12:30	1 lesson • Eliciting and Interpreting Student Thinking
6/26	8:30 - 9:30	1 lesson • Specifying and Reinforcing Student Behavior
	9:35-10:30	Lesson Planning Clinic Continued
	10:30-12:30	2 lessons • Social Emotional Safety • Curriculum 101
6/27	8:00 - 9:30	1 lesson • Differentiated Instruction
	9:35-10-30	Lesson Planning Clinic Continued
	10:30-11:30	1 lesson • Collaborative Planning
	11:30-12:00	Post-survey and wrap up
	12:00-1:00	Interviews

Instruments

In conducting the study, I used a mixed methods design, which included gathering quantitative and qualitative data.

Quantitative data. A quantitative survey was administered prior to and following the intervention. The survey was designed to measure seven different constructs related to interest in pursuing the teaching profession. The seven constructs included: (a) self-efficacy for teaching, (b) knowledge of various skills appropriate to teaching, (c) attitudes toward teaching, (d) experiences with teachers, (e) intention to be a teacher, (f) motivation to be a teacher, and (g) interest in being a teacher. To illustrate the nature of the constructs, several items used to assess the constructs have been presented in the text that follows. For example, for self-efficacy, representative items included, "I have the skills needed to be a teacher," and "I am confident I would be a good teacher." For knowledge of various skills, representative items were, "I can plan and design a lesson," and "I can explain and model content." With respect to attitudes toward teaching, items included, "Teachers make a difference in students' lives," and "Teachers are hard working." Representative items for experiences with teachers were, "One or more of my teachers care about my academic success," and "I look up to one or more of my teachers as a role model." For intention to be a teacher, representative items included, "I intend to be a teacher," and "I plan to be a teacher." With respect to motivation for teaching, sample items were, "I understand what teachers do," and "I have experiences helping teachers." Finally, for interest in becoming a teacher, representative items were, "I am interested in being a teacher," and "I am interested in teaching as a career." The complete survey has been provided in Appendix B.

Qualitative data. Qualitative data were gathered through interviews conducted at the end of the project. The qualitative interview was semi-structured with 13 open-ended questions. The interview questions were designed around the seven constructs, which were also assessed on the survey and included (a) self-efficacy for teaching, (b) knowledge of various skills appropriate to teaching, (c) attitudes toward teaching, (d) experiences with teachers, (e) intention to be a teacher, (f) motivation to be a teacher, and (g) interest in being a teacher. Several representative interview questions have been provided to illustrate the nature of the questions. Representative interview questions included, "What makes you confident/not confident that you would be a good teacher," "What is your attitude toward teaching," and "How would you describe your interest in teaching?" The complete set of interview questions has been provided in Appendix C.

Procedure

Prior to initiating the intervention, participants took the survey regarding perceptions about teachers and their desire to become a teacher. Then the intervention and field experience opportunities were provided to participants as outlined in Table 3 with the intervention being distributed over a three-week period. The same quantitative survey was administered at the end of the intervention to determine whether there were changes in students' perspectives. Interviews of eight students were conducted at the conclusion of the project.

Timeline

The timeline for the proposed intervention has been provided in Table 4. The table included various activities related to logistical and data gathering and analysis processes, data collection, and data analysis.

Table 4

Intervention and Data Collection Timeline

Date of Activity	Activity
Late May 2018	Identify potential participants and send recruitment letters
Late May 2018	Confirm participants
June 2018	Conduct intervention and collect data appropriate to the time of the study (pre- and post-assessments, interviews)
July 2018	Analyze Data

Data Analysis

To analyze the quantitative data, various techniques were used in SPSS including (a) reliability analysis of the constructs and (b) repeated measures analyses of variance of appropriate constructs.

Qualitative data were analyzed using the constant comparative method (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). Data were entered into HyperRESEARCH (2013) to assist in assigning codes and grouping qualitative data. At each step of the process, the researcher engaged in a reflective process where data was carefully reviewed to ensure the higher-level interpretations were supported by the data. To begin the analysis, open coding was utilized. Through this process, data were compared and inquiry was made regarding what was understood. To begin, key words and phrases were highlighted to develop initial

relationships between data. After the first round of selecting words and phrases, categories were developed. Then the data within each category was compared to determine if new categories were needed or if categories should be revised. Some categories were modified, deleted, or combined. This led to the creation of theme-related categories. The reflective and cyclical process described during initial coding was implemented again to develop accurate theme-related components. Finally, the reflective process was repeated, and categories, and data within categories, were compared and analyzed to develop themes. After several iterations of theme development, three themes were finally adopted.

Chapter 4

RESULTS

Results from the study have been presented in the following two sections of the chapter. In the first section, I have presented the quantitative data. Qualitative data is presented in the second section. For the qualitative data, assertions were explained and reinforced with themes, theme-related components, and quotes from participants. The data analyses procedures have also been described.

Reliability analyses were conducted prior to analyzing the pre- and post-intervention data, which were analyzed using repeated measures analysis of variance (ANOVA) procedures. Qualitative data from semi-structured, in-person interviews with eight participants were first entered into HyperRESEARCH version 4.0. Subsequently, I analyzed those data using the comparative method (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). First initial codes were established, and they were gathered into categories called theme-related components, then into themes from which assertions were derived.

Quantitative Results

Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the pre-intervention data ranged from .84 to .98 with a median of .91. All the coefficients were well above the value of .70, which has been considered to be the benchmark for acceptable reliability values indicating the data were reliable. The complete set of reliabilities have been provided in Table 5.

Table 5

Cronbach's α Reliability Coefficients for Pre-intervention Data

Measure	Pre-Intervention α Coefficient
Self-Efficacy	.84
Knowledge of teacher competencies	.96
Attitudes toward being a teacher	.86
Intention to become a teacher	.96
Motivation to Become a Teacher	.86
Interest in becoming a teacher	.98

A repeated measures analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to compare the pre- and post-intervention data. The multivariate, repeated measures ANOVA was significant, multivariate $F(6, 14) = 10.87$, $p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .823$, which was a large effect size for a within-subjects' effect using Cohen's criteria (Olejnik & Algina, 2000). Because the multivariate test was significant, individual univariate follow-up ANOVAs were conducted. In each case, the univariate tests were significant, as noted in the following section. Notably, for each variable the scores declined significantly from the pre- to the post-intervention assessment, which was the opposite of the anticipated outcome. Moreover, these outcomes were supported by results from the qualitative data. The univariate test for self-efficacy was significant, $F(1, 19) = 54.51$, $p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .742$, which was a large effect size for a within-subjects' effect using Cohen's criteria (Olejnik & Algina, 2000). Self-efficacy scores declined significantly from pre- to post-

intervention assessment. For example, the pre-intervention mean for self-efficacy was 3.87, but the post-intervention mean was only 2.63. See Table 6 for the means and standard deviations for the dependent variables. The univariate test for knowledge of

Table 6

Means and Standard Deviations for the Six Variables on the Pre- and Post-Intervention Assessments

Measure	Pre-Intervention	Post-Intervention
Self-Efficacy	3.87 (0.97)*	2.63 (0.68)
Knowledge of teacher competencies	3.36 (0.95)	2.34 (0.79)
Attitudes toward being a teacher	2.12 (1.00)	1.78 (0.82)
Intention to become a teacher	4.48 (1.49)	3.53 (1.28)
Motivation to Become a Teacher	2.58 (0.94)	1.81 (0.88)
Interest in becoming a teacher	4.48 (1.47)	3.49 (1.41)

*Note: Standard deviations are presented in parentheses.

teacher competencies was significant, $F(1, 19) = 22.31$, $p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .540$, which was a large effect size for a within-subjects' effect. Again, scores for knowledge of teacher competencies decreased significantly. Moreover, the analysis for attitudes toward being a teacher was significant, $F(1, 19) = 5.23$, $p < .034$, partial $\eta^2 = .216$, which was a large effect size. Scores for attitudes toward being a teacher declined significantly during the study.

The univariate test for intention to become a teacher was significant, $F(1, 19) = 9.39$, $p < .006$, partial $\eta^2 = .331$, which was a large effect size for a within-subjects' effect using Cohen's criteria (Olejnik & Algina, 2000). Intention to become a teacher scores

declined significantly from pre- to post-intervention assessment. Likewise, the test for experience with teaching/motivation was significant, $F(1, 19) = 21.99$, $p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .537$, which was a large effect size for a within-subjects' effect. Again, scores for experience with motivation to become a teacher decreased significantly. Finally, the analysis for interest in becoming a teacher was significant, $F(1, 19) = 10.36$, $p < .005$, partial $\eta^2 = .353$, which was a large effect size. Scores for interest in becoming a teacher declined significantly during the study. Taken together, the data showed significant declines from pre- to post-intervention assessment for all variables.

Qualitative Results

In this section, results from qualitative data have been presented. In Table 7, on the next page, I have presented the themes, theme related components, and assertions. Each theme will be discussed, highlighting relevant participant quotes to support the assertions.

Table 7

Themes, Theme-related Components, and Assertions

Theme-related Components	Themes	Assertions
1. Understanding students as individuals 2. Possessing strong interpersonal qualities 3. Acknowledging preparedness	Characterizing good teachers	Good teachers understood all of their students personally and academically, embodied nurturing characteristics and were prepared for any circumstance in the classroom environment, allowing them to be more effective in lesson planning, managing student behavior, and preparing students for post-secondary pathways.
1. Having more respect for teachers 2. Recognizing teachers are hard workers 3. Appreciating that teachers improve lives	Changing perceptions about teachers	As a result of the study, students universally experienced a positive shift in their perceptions of teachers, resulting in greater respect for the profession and a belief that teaching was rigorous, demanding and has the power to change lives.
1. Ethnicity as a factor 2. Reasons for not wanting to teach: Teaching work load; Teacher Pay; Failure; Student behavior 3. Reasons for wanting to become a teacher: Building relationships; Improving students' lives; Exposure to teaching	Deciding to become a teacher	Students attributed interest in teaching to altruistic motives such as relationship building and deterrents to pursuing teaching primarily to workload and pay.

Characterizing good teachers. Assertion 1 – Students believed that good teachers understood each of their students personally and academically, embodied nurturing characteristics, and were prepared for any circumstance in the classroom

environment, allowing them to be more effective in lesson planning, managing student behavior, and preparing students for post-secondary pathways. The first theme, characterizing good teachers, was comprised of three theme-related components: (a) understanding students as individuals, (b) possessing strong interpersonal qualities, and (c) acknowledging preparedness. In the post-intervention interviews, all eight students provided statements about their beliefs regarding characteristics of good teachers.

Understanding students as individuals. When describing characteristics of good teachers, students overwhelmingly emphasized the importance of how teachers were able to understand students as individuals. Nevertheless, where the emphasis was placed, was more variable and ranged from teachers building relationships with students to teachers understanding individual learning styles.

Three of the eight students, for example, placed emphasis on relationship building as the means by which teachers understood students as individuals. One participant, for instance, stated, "A good teacher would be understanding their students, getting to know them well." This student alludes to the teacher taking time to develop an understanding of the student beyond the academic context. Another student suggested that by understanding students, teachers were equipping these individual with skills needed to thrive after high school. This student stated that teachers, "need to know [students] personally because [a teacher] could do whatever to prepare the student, but if you have no clue how to prepare the student to go into the real world then the student's gonna do nothing."

For several other students, a good teacher was characterized by having a deeper understanding of students' individual learning styles. One student described this

characteristic as being, “open-minded about how students can learn,” which would allow teachers to, “find a way that everyone can learn without having so many students [being] confused.” This participant understood that differentiation was needed to promote mastery and believed that a good teacher could excel in differentiating content based on understanding how students learned. Another indicated teachers who understood individual students’ learning styles were better equipped to “design their lesson plans.” Similar to the first participant, this individual believed that lesson plans should be driven by differentiated student needs. Participants gained exposure to differentiation through developing their own lesson plans.

Possessing strong interpersonal qualities. Student responses during the interviews also indicated good teachers were nurturing, and they described teacher personas as caring, patient, and selfless. One student discussed these qualities by focusing on reasons teachers pursued the profession. She shared, “[Teachers] don’t just wanna be teachers just for the money. They do it for the students and they [put] a lot of work into it.” This student suggested teachers were caring and selfless as they pursued a career requiring a great deal of work given the limited pay. Several students described good teachers as being patient by acknowledging this characteristic in themselves. One student, for example, said she would be a good teacher because she was “patient.”

Acknowledging preparedness. Finally, students described good teachers as those who proactively prepared for any situation in the classroom. Good teachers were described as being prepared to manage student behavior, set norms and expectations early on, and engage in great time management.

Participants claimed managing behavior was a quality of good teachers because good behavior management provided the foundation for the teacher to address the needs of all students. For example, one student indicated, "…If one kid's misbehaving, [the teacher is] just gonna focus on that kid and ignore the others." In this example, poor behavior management would result in the teacher being unable to provide quality instruction to the remainder of students in class. Participants gained a greater understanding of the relationship between behavior management and learning through being required to manage student behavior when delivering their own lessons. Many of the participants struggled in doing so, and this affected their self-efficacy during their execution of their lessons.

Students believed that norm setting and establishing rules early on was critical for managing student behavior and increasing engagement. One participant explained, "…It's important to…know the expectations before it becomes a habit, where [students] get to talk whenever they want…Be strict at first and then enjoy afterwards because they'll know the expectations." This participant drew the conclusion that norms and expectations would lead to positive behavior outcomes and would result in greater learning.

Students also identified time management as an indicator of preparedness by emphasizing the demands of preparing course materials. One participant attributed his experience in the intervention to learning how to, "manage time…to make [lessons] faster," and "making backup plans for lessons." Similarly, another student shared that time management meant that teachers, "need to have a plan B…a fool proof plan overall and think things through. Think about the little details or envision how I want the

classroom [to be] running." In her own experience, her mock lesson plan was interrupted when the projector light burnt out. She did not factor in the time it would take to address unexpected issues, which resulted in her team having to end their lesson without covering important elements.

Changing perceptions about teachers. Assertion 2 – As a result of the study, students universally experienced a positive shift in their perceptions of teachers, resulting in greater respect for the profession, and a belief that teaching was rigorous, demanding, and had the power to change lives. The second theme was comprised of three theme-related components: (a) having more respect for teachers, (b) recognizing teachers are hard workers, and (c) appreciating that teachers improve lives.

Having more respect for teachers. Students' appreciation levels for teachers increased as a result of their experience in the intervention, both through the knowledge gained from participating in instructor led lessons and having the experiences related to creating and executing their own lessons. In reflecting on his experience having to teach a lesson, one student responded, "I respect [teachers] a lot more 'cause I know it's difficult to be up in the classroom and waiting to see whether the kids are gonna pay attention or not." Another student affirmed this sentiment as she claimed, "Now I understand what they go through on a daily basis." Even with limited exposure to the profession, students suggested their overall understanding of teacher responsibilities increased, leading to a greater sense of empathy and respect.

Recognizing teachers are hard workers. Students expressed a shift in perception about teacher work ethic and workload, particularly as it related to lesson planning and time management. Any instance in which teacher workload and work ethic were

mentioned resulted in unanimous declarations of teachers being hard working professionals.

Prior to the intervention, however, the majority of students assumed the day-to-day job was easy and did not require a particular skillset. For example, one student shared,

> My perspective of teaching … has completely changed. I thought it was easy for a teacher to just make lesson plans … Because the way they were just like saying things in class would just seem easy to make … I know that they're way harder workers than I thought they were.

Students commonly expressed they underestimated the rigor of the profession, particularly as they worked on creating their own lessons. One participant affirmed this as he reflected on the time it took him to create a lesson. He shared, "[Teachers] stay [up] 3:00 a.m. just to get a lesson plan and come the next day … knowing what to do with their students." The time demands of the profession were further elaborated on by a participant who shared, "I never understood that teachers had a lot to do for their lessons. But now creating one to teach my class, it was a lot more work." She also described teacher workload through the lens of multi-tasking and differentiation. She explained, "… 30 minutes it goes by very quickly once you're teaching somebody, so you really don't have enough time to have side conversations with a student next to you." One student had previous exposure to teaching because his sister was a teacher. The intervention confirmed his beliefs about teacher workload and work ethic as he shared,

> They're very hard working. That's what I realized over the years. With my sister being a teacher, I realized that she's also very hard working, and most

> of her hours that she uses, like day hours, they are kinda just used for teaching and grading and making lesson plans.

This student, similar to the others, acknowledged teaching entailed many components, all of which required time beyond the average work day.

Acknowledging that teachers improve lives. Students overwhelmingly suggested teachers had a positive impact on students' lives, and in turn the community. One student stated teachers, "change a lot of kids' lives. They impact them, mostly, 'cause we're with teachers for mostly all day and depending on how [teachers] are, that's how we are or what we learn." This student suggested that due to the significant time spent with teachers, educators became role models for how to interact with others in our society. Another student elaborated by asserting teachers affect students, but teachers also influence the community and future generations. This student claimed, "Without [teachers] our society would kinda like break apart 'cause who is supposed to teach the new generation if we don't have teachers." One participant expanded on this aspect of teacher impact by reflecting on his capacity to make a difference as a future teacher,

> Maybe one student … they're super poor … I would like to change students, make it to where they're more successful so that they can provide their families 'cause there's some families whose students … depend on school so they could help out their families in the future.

This student's response depicted teachers as catalysts who helped students improve their own lives, as well as, future generations within their family.

Deciding to become a teacher. Assertion 3 - Students attributed interest in teaching to altruistic motives such as relationship building and deterrents to pursuing

teaching primarily to workload and pay. The final theme was supported by seven theme-related components: (a) ethnicity as a factor, (b) teaching workload, (c) student behavior, (d) failure, (e) building relationships, (f) improving students' lives, and (g) exposure to teaching. Prior to the intervention, it was anticipated students would become more interested in pursuing a teaching profession as a result of the intervention. By comparison, the outcomes from the study found all participants ultimately did not intend to become teachers at the conclusion of the intervention. Although, while three of the eight students indicated they currently had no interest in teaching, they shared they could potentially pursue the profession in the future if their career and academic plans changed. Reasons for the lack of intention to pursue teaching have been discussed in more depth in the next sections.

Ethnicity as a factor. It was anticipated teacher ethnicity would have influenced students' desire to teach. Post-intervention interview data yielded different results. All but one student expressed that ethnicity was not an influential factor in their aspirations to teach. Most students indicated quality of the teacher was what mattered rather than ethnicity. This contradicted earlier research. For instance, one student said, "What motivates me for becoming a teacher would be how good the teacher is, no matter whatever [ethnicity] they are." Another participant described ethnicity as irrelevant when she said I just, "…see everyone as humans." The student who did express ethnicity as a motivational factor for pursuing teaching explained, "seeing someone that looks like me, it means they can make it, so then it motivates me in seeing why I can make it."

Teaching workload. One of the greatest factors contributing to students' disinterest in the teaching profession was related to the work demands. As discussed

previously, students were largely unaware of these demands prior to participating in the project. Through their experience in the intervention, however, students began to understand the intensity of the work required by the profession. When asked if he wanted to become a teacher, one student answered, “I kinda do want to be a teacher, just for the kids and for the education, but looking at how tough being a teacher is, I don’t know.” Similarly, another participant stated, “One thing that would prevent me from becoming a teacher … the amount of hours it takes … I heard it’s a very stressful job.”

Among respondents, lesson planning was commonly referenced as a time consuming and challenging component of teaching. When asked if there was anything that would make the student feel unequipped to become a teacher, one student mentioned, “Probably like lesson plans, ‘cause that came out to be like really … a lot harder than I thought it would be, all the planning.” Another student expressed, “I never understood that teachers had a lot to do for their lessons, but now creating one to teach my class, it was a lot more work.”

As part of the lesson plan intervention component, students were taught about differentiation and were required to add this strategy to their lessons. This further exposed students to the time demands of the profession. One student explained, “I know now that it’s really hard for [teachers] to make lesson plans for kids because they have to … think really hard about it. They had to plan it out for each and every one of their classes, and then learning could be different for every student …” Similarly, one participant rhetorically asked, “What if someone finished early, you need to figure something out. And then, what if someone has a problem, you gotta solve that.”

Teacher pay. Participants referenced altruistic motivations for being attracted to the profession, such as changing student lives and helping students succeed, but these sentiments were outweighed by teacher pay. For instance, when asked what would motivate him to become a teacher, one student responded, "to change the world, to help become. Why I wouldn't is because the salary's really low." This particular student expressed he would become a teacher, "if [he] had a chance," yet salary was enough of a detractor to make him feel as though this was not a viable option. Another student affirmed this sentiment when she replied, "…What would make me believe that I would be a good teacher is that seeing the faces in kids as they learn. And what would not make me want to [teach] would be the amount of salary that [teachers] get."

Several students referenced that they had other career aspirations. Notably, these careers reflected higher wage jobs and more societal prestige, such as archeologists, surgeons, and private photographers. One student attempted to explain this so as not to offend the interviewer. He shared, "I've just always dreamed about being a surgeon or a pilot. I've just been reaching out for … I wouldn't say bigger, 'cause I don't know if that's offensive…'"

Student behavior. When describing aspirations or intentions to teach, students overwhelmingly addressed student behavior as a primary concern and source of anxiety that inhibited them from pursuing the profession. Student behavior played an important role in affecting participants' self-efficacy, and ultimately was one of the primary reasons participants said they would not want to enter the profession. One student stated, "What makes it hard is that I don't think that I would be able to hold control of a class…" Similarly, another participant claimed, "…I kinda crack under pressure. If I ever lose

control of a classroom, I don't think I would know how to get it back." These types of statements were consistent across all students.

Other students explicitly linked their concerns about behavior to their own lack of patience. For example, one student said, "I don't think I'd have the patience for little kids." Another participant shared these concerns by explaining, "The kids, sometime their behavior isn't so good, so I wouldn't put up with them."

Failure. Participants alluded to failure as a factor affecting self-efficacy with respect to their teaching abilities. Students expressed concern about failure in different ways. One student felt as though she would have difficulty in executing the art of instruction when she said, "…Some things that make me feel like I wouldn't be a good teacher are that … I can't really explain things very well to people." This student further shared,

> When we were teaching … doing our class lesson and I had to explain … and show the students how to find context clues to find the definition of a word, I feel like I could have explained that better than I actually did.

Another participant related failure to student expectations when he stated,

> … [Teaching] is a very stressful job. You have that sense of … if I don't help the student, I might've just failed the student. I think the student has expectations for a teacher, and I think some teachers … believe that if they don't follow those expectations, they probably failed the students … it makes them feel terrible.

This student also related failure in teaching to a personal failure. In this context, the teacher assumed a greater role in the trajectory of their students' future and well-being.

Building relationships. Although many factors acted as deterrents for entering the teaching profession, students simultaneously felt there were positive aspects about teaching that could potentially motivate them to become educators. These factors tended to be altruistic in nature, which complemented research. Students emphasized relationship building as a key motivating factor. For example, one student shared, "what motivates me is wanting to get along with students and … just be there for them." Another student affirmed this as she claimed, "I would like to have the connection with students, get to know them better instead of just teaching." It is important to note that despite these sentiments, these students were not persuaded to pursue teaching as a career for other reasons described previously.

Improving students' lives. Participants in this study expressed desires to help students within and beyond the academic context. The possibility of having a positive influence on students resulted in participants considering teaching as a potential option. One student said she felt confident in her ability to teach because she would, "try to be understanding and be as helpful as [she] could." Similarly, another participant expressed, "One thing that makes me confident would be that some students they believe that I could help them, which I believe that I could also do that." A third student also alluded to helping students, as he reflected on the support he received from his own teachers. He shared, "My teachers I look up to for always believing in me and helping me out whenever I need it. They could be a motivation for me becoming a teacher so I could be able to help other kids that are in need."

Students also expressed a desire to help students reach their personal academic goals. One student claimed, "I guess what would make me believe that I would be a good

teacher is that seeing the faces in kids as they learn." When asked what could motivate her to become a teacher, another participant also claimed, "I guess seeing the kids finally learning and understanding the concept."

Other students were motivated by the possibility of having an impact on students' personal lives and 'claim' that teachers can change the world. For instance, one student said,

> I want to become a teacher. I would like to change students, make it to where they're more successful so that they can provide for their families … that would make me feel like I did something good in life.

One participant claimed he would be motivated to teach to help others when he stated, "to change the world, to help people." This was reiterated by another participant who maintained, "without [teachers] our society would kinda like break apart 'cause who is supposed to teach the new generation if we don't have teachers." Another student affirmed this as she explained, "I think that [teachers] can change a lot in this world if they are given the opportunity."

Exposure to teaching. Another factor that supported participants interest in teaching was their exposure to the profession, specifically the hands-on experience of creating a lesson plan. For example, one student explained,

> When we made the slides of how to make a lesson plan like the you do, or as we do, I do … and all that. That led me to think I could do something like probably be a good teacher … Then just the videos that we watched on teaching that's also given me some examples on how I could bring the class back if they're not paying attention or something like that.

Another student discussed her ability to teach through reflecting on prior exposure to the profession as she stated,

> Since elementary school, I have been exposed to how to grade and to be teaching students, so a lot of teachers would have me stay after school… to teach me certain standards … so that I would be able to help other students during class.

This type of experience was also shared by a participant who described his experiences explaining, "Two years ago, I stayed helping a teacher [create] lesson plans and take care of kids," further emphasizing, "[this program] made me better [at] lesson planning and keeping my time on track."

Summary. Taken together the quantitative and qualitative data suggested students did not intend to become teachers. Notably, the quantitative scores declined for all variables and the qualitative data demonstrated students were not inclined to pursue teaching because of workload, pay, effort, and other variables associated with teaching.

Chapter 5

DISCUSSION

This action research project is motivated by a critical problem of practice in Arizona, the devastating teacher shortage. Arizona has been battling with a teacher shortage for years. In fact, a 2018 survey published by the Arizona School Personnel Administration Association (ASPAA) shows for the fourth consecutive year, the state is experiencing teacher shortages and many classrooms are filled by teachers who do not meet state certification requirements. At the beginning of the 2017-2018 academic school year, ASPAA (2018) reported over 1,500 teacher vacancies and nearly 3,000 under qualified educators in classroom. Given the devastating outlook on the teaching profession in Arizona, the present study examines a strategy for developing interest among individuals to consider becoming educators, particularly in underserved schools with high concentrations of minority students. The study targeted Hispanic high school students due to the growing need to increase the number of Hispanic teachers in Arizona because of the growing Hispanic student population. Today's high school students are an untapped pipeline of potential future teachers.

Complementarity and Integration of Quantitative and Qualitative Data

Results from the present study do not reflect the anticipated outcome that the intervention would increase students' interests in becoming teachers. In fact, to the contrary, students' interests and intentions about becoming teachers declined considerably. Nevertheless, results reveal complementary findings pertaining to the variables examined in the study including self-efficacy, intention to become a teacher, interest in becoming a teacher, knowledge of teacher competencies, attitudes towards

being a teacher, and motivation to become a teacher. Complementarity refers to the use of quantitative and qualitative data to elaborate, enhance, illustrate or clarify the findings of one method with those from the other method (Greene, 2007; Greene, Caracelli, & Graham, 1989).

In the current study, the quantitative and qualitative data demonstrate a high degree of complementarity. That is, they point to the same conclusions. For example, significant declines in all the quantitative variables were also observed in the interview responses of student participants. To illustrate, consider the outcomes for self-efficacy, interest, and attitudes for becoming a teacher in Table 6. Self-efficacy declined about 1.2 points and interest declined about 1 point, which were significant. The declines in the quantitative data can be explained in the qualitative data where students describe (a) uncertainties about creating sound lessons, (b) concerns about student behavior and classroom management, (c) apprehensions about workload, (d) concerns about pay, and so on. The theoretical frameworks provide a framework for understanding the relationships between declines in self-efficacy and interest. According to the Social Cognitive Career Theory, we know that interest in shaped by mastery, which is similar to the Self-efficacy's reliance on personal performance. As participants experienced increased sense of failure, their interest in the teaching profession decreased. In similar ways, the declines in other variables can be accounted for by considering the interview data.

Explaining the Findings through a Theoretical Framework

Several general outcomes are noteworthy as we consider the first two research questions: (a) What perceptions of the teaching profession were held by Hispanic high

school students who attended a Title 1 school? and (b) How and to what extent did perceptions of the teaching profession for Hispanic students in a Title 1 school affect their desire to become a teacher? Overall, students held positive perceptions of teachers, but their perceptions of the rigor and work load demand of the profession changed during the study. This change in perception reflected the development of greater respect and empathy for teachers, but it also resulted in students expressing disinterest in pursuing a career in the profession. With regard to the third research questions: For Hispanic students in a Title 1 school, how and to what extent does personal experiences with teachers affect their desire to become a teacher?, personal experiences with former teachers were rarely referenced by students in interviews. When they were referenced, it was by students who had early positive experiences with their teachers. These students indicated that they were often the teachers aid in some respect. Ultimately, however, these positive experiences with teachers did not have great significance on interest to teach.

The outcomes with respect to the fourth research question: How and to what extent did targeted recruitment messages and exposure to the teaching field influence perceptions of the teaching profession among Hispanic high school students who attended a Title 1 school?, warrants detailed explanation of findings as targeted recruitment and exposure to the teaching field are much more complex. Thus, this is the key matter in this study. It was anticipated exposure to the teaching field would increase interest in becoming teachers. Results contradicted this expectation and there are several ways to account for various outcomes from the study that are related to this question.

First, the intervention was limited in time, which affected students' ability to master the behavior and subsequently develop strong levels of self-efficacy. For example, students remarked that lesson planning and delivery of instruction were quite difficult. Given that students only developed one lesson plan and implemented their plan only once, they had an insufficient amount of time to experience a sense of mastery (Bandura, 1997). Thus, with respect to the intervention, limited opportunities to engage in personal performance and master the task can best explain participants' low levels of self-efficacy with regard to teaching. Personal performance fosters success by encouraging sustained effort and persistence despite initial failures (Bandura, 1997). Due to time constraints of the intervention, individuals did not have the opportunity to master teaching pedagogy and skillsets that could have resulted in teaching successfully. Therefore, students maintained a very limited understanding of their own personal performance. They judged their capabilities largely based on only one experience. Notably, as Bandura claimed self-efficacy influences other aspects of how people think, feel, motivate themselves, and behave. Therefore, if students hold low levels of self-efficacy, they are not confident in their ability to achieve success, and they are more likely to forgo pursuing opportunities that appear to be unattainable.

Ajzen's (n.d.) Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) also helps in accounting for some of the outcomes, especially for attitudes toward teaching and intention, motivation, and interest to become a teacher. Ajzen indicates that attitudes are influenced by behavioral outcomes and the degree to which these outcomes are negatively or positively valued. In the present study, behavioral outcomes that appeared to have the most influence on attitude were ability to develop and implement lesson plans, ability to

manage behavior, and teacher pay. A primary component of the intervention was having students view themselves as teachers by immersing them into the profession over the course of three weeks. It was anticipated that by doing so, students would gain greater knowledge about the profession, resulting in a change of beliefs about the profession, and ultimately a positive attitude about teaching. Overall, students developed negative perceptions about their lesson plan outcomes and their ability to manage behavior. This contributed towards an unfavorable attitude towards becoming a teacher. Another example was students believed that teacher pay was too low compared to the rigor and workload of the profession. The outcomes associated with low pay outweighed other variables that may have been more favorable towards the profession. Given these attitudes, participants in the study ultimately determined they did not intend to pursue teaching as a career option.

Control beliefs, or the, "perceived presence of factors that may facilitate or impede performance of a behavior," also provided insight into the results for a variety of variables (Ajzen, n.d.). As previously noted, students referenced factors such as the stress and difficulty of lesson planning, behavior management, and teacher pay as deterrents for pursuing teaching as a career. These control beliefs contributed to students perceived behavioral control, or how the individual perceived their ability to execute a behavior (Ajzen, n.d.). After engaging in the one clinical experience, students control beliefs impeded their perceived behavioral control, or their belief that they could successfully teach. As noted in chapter 2, Thompson et al. (2012) found that teachers were initially drawn to the profession due to altruistic motivations but decided on whether to continue teaching once they began their practice. For this reason, Thompson et al. (2012)

recommended that pre-service teachers' behavioral beliefs, attitude toward the behavior, control beliefs, and perceived behavioral control match the realities of teaching. Participants' exposure to the intervention provided the opportunity for them to create a more precise understanding of the profession, which ultimately resulted in all participants expressing disinterest in pursuing the profession.

SCCT is useful in accounting for some of the outcomes for the study. SCCT is comprised of three models including (a) Interest Model, (b) Choice Model, and (c) Performance Model (Lent et al. 1994, 1996). The Interest Model is most relevant in aiding our understanding of the results. The Interest Model states that individuals' environments, particularly the activities and people within those environments, influence career choices. Similar to Bandura's beliefs about personal performance mastery, SCCT places great emphasis on requiring repeated engagement and exposure to the activities and people through which individuals acquire expectations of outcomes for their own performance (Lent et al., 1994). Through repeated success or failure in the career related activity, individuals develop interest in careers, which lead to goals and intentions to pursue the career (Lent et al., 1994). In the current study, the duration of the intervention was not long enough to create sustained exposure to teaching activities where participants engaged as teachers. All students struggled at creating and executing their lessons, so their interest was primarily based on the challenges faced with one experience.

Finally, results from quantitative data, particularly the large declines from pre- to post-intervention scores, might be attributable to response-shift bias. This phenomenon occurs when individuals use less stringent criteria when responding to a pre-intervention assessment, whereas they employ more stringent criteria at post-intervention assessment.

For example, as students first assessed their self-efficacy, they rated themselves higher with a mean of 3.87 because they did not apply relevant criteria in making in their judgements. By comparison, at the post-intervention assessments, they employ more stringent criteria because they now know and apply more appropriate criteria to make their judgements about self-efficacy, which generally leads to a decline in scores. In the case of self-efficacy, this resulted in a 1.24 point decrease in mean. When considering the qualitative results, these data seem to affirm the possibility that response-shift bias may play a role in the outcomes because participants describe viewing teaching as easy prior to their participation in the intervention. For instance, one participant states,

> My perspective of teaching … has completely changed. I thought it was easy for a teacher to just make lesson plans … Because the way they were just like saying things in class would just seem easy to make … I know that they're way harder [sic] workers than I thought they were.

Similar arguments could be made for the other variables. To illustrate, the pre-intervention assessment mean for the construct, "Interest in Becoming a Teacher" was 4.48 and declined to a mean of 3.49 on the post-intervention assessment. Response shift bias could explain this decrease through the clinical experiences students underwent. The clinical experience challenged students to engage in a thorough process of developing a lesson. After students engaged in this lengthy and rigorous process, they were required to create a lesson plan with various mandatory components such as differentiation and checks for understanding. Finally, after creating the lesson, participants were required to develop their materials to align with each component of the lesson. All students taught their lesson to the intervention class (micro-teaching). As participants recount this

process in the interviews, they describe their surprise and realization of the difficulty level and time demands related to teaching. Response-shift bias can be traced to the work of Howard & Daily (1979) and Howard, Ralph, Gulanick, Maxwell, Nance, & Gerber (1979) who found that interventions affected the self-reporting of participants due to new knowledge and experiences obtained. Response-shift bias is most prevalent in studies where the intervention is meant to cause a change in participants, such as was the case in the present study (Howard et al., 1979).

Finally, it was also anticipated that teacher race and ethnicity would be a significant factor in interest, thus research question 5: How did previous teachers' race and ethnicity affect motivation to teach among Hispanic students who attended a Title 1 school? However, respondents overwhelmingly maintained race and ethnicity were not important in their perceptions and interest in the teaching profession.

Limitations

Several limitations are present in the study, including (a) length of the study; and (b) timing of post-interviews. The following section will describe the limitations in more detail.

Length of the study. The study was conducted over three weeks. Each week, students participated in in two intervention sessions, with the exception of the final week when they participated three times. Each session was conducted over four hours. The condensed time frame required the researcher to exclude lesson components and unit topics that are traditionally taught in the national curriculum. The curriculum is typically a semester to two-year long course, depending on how the school wishes to structure the pre-service teacher program. The brevity of the study appears to sacrifice quality of

content exposure and student engagement opportunities. With a longer study, students would have greater opportunity to internalize teaching pedagogy and engage in more clinical experiences that foster mastery and increase self-efficacy. A longer study would also provide time for participants to interview college students who are pursuing a degree in teaching and practitioners in the field. These one-to-one interviews were initially meant to be part of the study, but time limitations did not permit the interviews. Additionally, because the intervention was only three-weeks long, it is not possible to determine whether students' intentions and aspirations are truly influenced. Ideally, a longitudinal study would provide greater opportunities to foster and support students as they engage in the curriculum and provide more powerful insights about whether student aspirations changed.

Timing of post-intervention interviews. Researchers typically use qualitative results to enhance and explain quantitative results through rich narrative. Post-intervention interviews are a part of such traditions and were conducted after the final session of the intervention. Students who volunteered to be interviewed were asked to stay after class and were told that each interview would take between five to 10 minutes. With eight students, this meant that some students waited for quite some time before being interviewed. Participants began to grow impatient and a few stated they may leave before interviewing if the process takes too long. The impatience may have contributed to shallow responses given by many of the participants. In their responses, students sometimes offered one word and other respondents would not elaborate. Additionally, the researcher feared many of the participants would not complete the interviews. As a result, the researcher felt rushed and was not consistent in seeking elaborations or clarifications.

In retrospect, the eight interviewees should have been invited to return to the school the next day at different times, or the researcher should have interviewed the participants at home.

Implications for Practice and for Future Research

The findings suggest although the curriculum used in this action research might increase intentionality to become a teacher among students who are already interested in the profession, it does not necessarily have the same effect on students who do not demonstrate this initial interest. Thus, those school districts or higher education institutions that seek to develop a "grow your own" model might be served better by a curriculum that is focused more on hands on teaching experiences over a longer period of time to increase self-efficacy.

Results from this study regarding the influence of teacher ethnicity contradict other research in the field. Students in the study did not regard ethnicity as a motivating or essential factor in their intentions to become a teacher. The intervention did not include a specific focus on this topic and did not allot time for students to engage with their peers about the importance, or relevance of this factor. Future programs could incorporate a session on ethnicity and its influence on students' decision to become teachers.

This curriculum employed in this study does ultimately increase respect and admiration for the profession. The clinical experience appears to be a powerful component for this increase. During this portion of the course, students became increasingly aware of the depth of knowledge and skill it takes to be a teacher. Moreover, as a result, of this deeper understanding, students often remark on the difficulties of

creating a lesson plan, assessing student needs in real time, and managing student behavior. In future work, which affords more time for the intervention, participants may be consider becoming an educator as their self-efficacy in technical skills increases.

Results from the study suggest two potential areas for future research. The first area pertains to using a non-traditional recruitment approaches for students who do not already have an interest in becoming a teacher. The curriculum used for the present intervention is typically implemented in a school setting with students who already have a general interest in the teaching profession. The present study permitted any student to join the intervention, whether or not they had an initial interest in the profession. Many students decided to join the course because they received community service hours toward their high school graduation requirement. A more fruitful effort for recruitment may require that initial, substantial interest be assessed and be required of students participating in the program.

Finally, the second area for future research could be a longitudinal study to determine whether high school students select education as a major and ultimately become teachers. As previously noted, one limitation of the study was the timeframe in which the intervention was implemented. Data collection was limited to a summer course and could be extended to follow these students throughout a one- to two-year program and college.

Conclusion

The education workforce is rapidly changing due to the increasing teacher shortage and the changes in workforce needs. Universities across the United States are working toward solutions that will meet the needs of K-12 school districts, particularly

around teacher shortages. In fact, Mary Lou Fulton Teachers College is currently developing a model that re-imagines the educator workforce, moving it way from the traditional 30 to 1, student to teacher ratio. This model recognizes that teacher recruitment and retention is becoming increasingly challenging for school districts. As a result, the college is working towards innovative solutions that will re-think the way school districts recruit teachers and staff their classrooms.

In the meantime, before such a model can be implemented, educators must continue to wrestle with the immediate needs for school districts in Arizona. In this study, I implemented a curriculum based on a "grow you own" model developed to recruit Hispanic students into the teaching profession. Although the data did not produce the results I originally hoped for, the insights and experiences gained from the study suggested the education community has a largely untapped talent pool of potential educators who should be targeted through alternative recruitment frameworks.

When alternative approaches are implemented, careful consideration must be given to the curriculum, the timeframe for the program, and the clinical experience part of the curriculum. First, in terms of curriculum, it must provide research-based information and knowledge relevant to becoming/being a teacher. In addition, the curriculum must afford participants opportunities to "catch the feeling" of becoming/being a teacher. Thus, there must be a strong affective component to the curriculum. Second, the program cannot be "rushed." Students must have time to learn and come to "own" the curriculum through academic and "hands on learning experiences," which leads to the next point. Results suggest clinical experience is a critical factor in shaping students' perspectives about the teaching profession.

Nevertheless, in the clinical part of the program, additional strategies and exposure to the profession should be considered to move potential candidates from solely experiencing empathy for teachers to a direct desire to become a teacher.

Finally, it may be worth developing a curriculum for policy makers and business leaders to better understand the demands and rigor of the teaching profession. Perhaps through this exposure, the education system may yield positive gains through increased investments and more informed policy decisions that result the best outcome for teaching and learning.

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APPENDIX A

SECONDARY EDUCATION (ENGLISH) MAJOR MAP COMPARISON TO INTERVENTION

Term 1, Semester 1

Class	Teaching Related	Theme	Alignment with Intervention Curriculum
ENG 101 or 102, OR ENG 105, OR ENG 107 OR ENG 108	No	General Education	None
MAT 142	No	General Education	None
TEL 101: Professional Educators Series Introduces professional topics such as design-thinking, character and moral development, professional identity, and legacy-minding thinking and actions.	Yes	Educator Identity	You
EDT 180: Technology Literacy: Problem Solving using Digital Technology	Maybe	Teaching Practices	Your Classroom: Teaching for Empowerment
Natural Science	No	General Education	None

Term 2, Semester 1

ENG 101 or 102, OR ENG 105, OR ENG 107 OR ENG 108	No	General Education	None
TEL 101: Professional Educators Series	Yes	Educator Identity	You

SPE 222: Orientation to Education of Exceptional Children	Yes	Teaching Practices	Your Students: Diverse Learners
Global Awareness	No	General Education	None
Natural Science	No	General Education	None
Elective	No	General Education	None
Term 3, Semester 2			
ENG 200: Critical Reading and Writing about Literature	Yes	Content Knowledge	Your Classroom: Introducing Teaching, High-Leverage Practices
Tel 201: Professional Educators Series	Yes	Educator Identity	You
ENG 221: Survey of English Literature	Yes	Content Knowledge	Your Classroom: Introducing Teaching, High-Leverage Practices
ENG 241: Literatures of the United States to 1860	Yes	Content Knowledge	Your Classroom: Introducing Teaching, High-Leverage Practices

TEL 212: Understanding the Culturally Diverse Learner	Yes	Teaching Practices	Your Students: Connecting with Students
Term 4, Semester 2			
TEL 202: Professional Educators Series: My Impact Advances on educator's series and focuses on becoming change agents for civic engagement and towards their personal and professional growth	Yes	Educator Identity	You, Your Students: Anti-Bias Instruction, Your Community: Partners, Your Profession: Context for Great Teaching
ENG 215: Strategies of academic writing OR ENG 216: Persuasive Writing on Public Issues OR ENG 217: Writing Reflective Essays OR ENG 311 Persuasive Writing	Yes	Content Knowledge	Your Classroom: Introducing Teaching, High-Leverage Practices
ENG 222: Survey of English Literature	Yes	Content Knowledge	Your Classroom: Introducing Teaching, High-Leverage Practices
GCU 113: United States and Arizona Social Students	Yes	Content Knowledge	Your Classroom: Introducing Teaching, High-Leverage Practices
Ethnic Literature Course	No	General Education	None

Term 5, Semester 3

SED 396: Clinical Experience 1	Yes	Field Experience	Clinical Experience (non-lesson)
SED 464: Middle School Curr/Org	Yes	Teaching Practices	Your Classroom: Introducing Teaching
TEL 311: Instruction and Management in the Inclusive Classroom	Yes	Teaching Practices	Your Classroom: Classroom Culture and Management and High-Leverage Practices
EDP 313: Childhood and Adolescence	Yes	Student Development	Your Students
ENG 312: English in Social Setting OR ENG 314: Modern Grammar OR ENG: 323: Rhetoric and Grammar	Yes	Content Knowledge	Your Classroom: Introducing Teaching, High-Leverage Practices
ENG Elective	Maybe	Content Knowledge	Your Classroom: Introducing Teaching, High-Leverage Practices

Term 6, Semester 3

BLE 407: SEI for Secondary Students	Yes	Teaching Practices	Your Classroom: High Leverage Practices
SED 397: Clinical Experiences II	Yes	Field Experience	Clinical Experience (Non-lesson)
SPE: Inclusion Practices at the Secondary Level	Yes	Teaching Practices	Your Students: Diverse Learners
ENG 321: Shakespeare ENG 421: Studies in Shakespeare ENG 422: Special Topics in Shakespeare	Yes	Content Knowledge	Your Classroom: Introducing Teaching, High-Leverage Practices
ENG 471: Literature for Young Adults	Yes	Content Knowledge	Your Classroom: Introducing Teaching, High-Leverage Practices
ENG 480: Methods of Teaching English Composition OR SED 481: English Teaching Methods for Secondary Schools	Yes	Teaching Practices	Your Classroom: Introducing Teaching, High-Leverage Practices

Term 7, Semester 4

RDG 323: Literacy Processes in Content Areas	Yes	Teaching Practices	Your Classroom: Introducing Teaching, High-Leverage Practices
SED 322: Classroom Leadership in Secondary Schools	Yes	Educator Identity	Your Profession, You: Personal Expectation
SED 496: Clinical Experience III	Yes	Field Experience	Clinical Experience (Non-Teaching)
Methods of Teaching English	Yes	Teaching Practices	Your Classroom: Introducing Teaching, High-Leverage Practices
Elective	No	General Education	
Term 8, Semester 4			
SED 478: Student Teaching: Secondary Education	Yes	Field Experience	Clinical Experience (Non-Teaching)

APPENDIX B

INTERVENTION PRE- AND POST-SURVEY

1. Pick the first three letters of your birthday month and the last 3 digits of your phone number. For example, if my birthday is in September and my phone number is 123 - 456 - 7890, I will write sep890. You'll need to remember this because you'll be asked to use this identifier to complete the post-survey.

   Write your identifier here. _____ Today's date ____

2. What is your gender?
   a. Male
   b. Female

3. What grade will you be in next fall?
   a. 11
   b. 12

4. What kinds of grades did you get on your last report card?
   a. Straight A's
   b. A's and B's
   c. A's, B's, and C's
   d. Mostly B's and C's
   e. Mostly D's and F's

5. Are you involved in any sports or clubs?
   a. No
   b. I'm involved with a sport and a club
   c. I'm involved in only a sport
   d. I'm involved in only a club

SELF-EFFICACY

Rate each of the following items using a 6-point scale where 6 = Strongly Agree, 5 = Agree, 4 = Slightly Agree, 3 = Slightly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, and 1 = Strongly Disagree.

	SA	A	SLA	SLD	D	SD
6. I have the skills needed to be a teacher.	6	5	4	3	2	1
7. I have the knowledge I need to be a teacher.	6	5	4	3	2	1
8. I understand the content needed to be a teacher.	6	5	4	3	2	1
9. I have experiences that would help me be a teacher.	6	5	4	3	2	1
10. I am confident I would be a good teacher.	6	5	4	3	2	1
11. One or more of my teachers have told me I should become a teacher.	6	5	4	3	2	1

KNOWLEDGE OF TEACHER COMPETENCIES

Rate each of the following items using a 6-point scale where 6 = Strongly Agree, 5 = Agree, 4 = Slightly Agree, 3 = Slightly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, and 1 = Strongly Disagree.

	SA	A	SLA	SLD	D	SD
12. I can engage students in the classroom.	6	5	4	3	2	1
13. I can plan and design a lesson.	6	5	4	3	2	1
14. I can use data to inform instruction.	6	5	4	3	2	1
15. I can explain and model content.	6	5	4	3	2	1
16. I can differentiate instruction for students.	6	5	4	3	2	1
17. I know what curriculum is.	6	5	4	3	2	1
18. I can set learning goals for students.	6	5	4	3	2	1

KNOWLEDGE OF TEACHER COMPETENCIES

Rate each of the following items using a 6-point scale where 6 = Strongly Agree, 5 = Agree, 4 = Slightly Agree, 3 = Slightly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, and 1 = Strongly Disagree.

	SA	A	SLA	SLD	D	SD
19. I can be a great teacher.	6	5	4	3	2	1
20. I can use cultural competencies in teaching.	6	5	4	3	2	1
21. I can use asset-based approaches in teaching.	6	5	4	3	2	1
22. I can manage students' classroom behavior.	6	5	4	3	2	1
23. I can form norms and routines for the classroom.	6	5	4	3	2	1
24. I can provide social and emotional safety to students.	6	5	4	3	2	1
25. I can interpret student thinking to aid my teaching.	6	5	4	3	2	1
26. I can manage small group work.	6	5	4	3	2	1
27. I can reinforce positive student behavior.	6	5	4	3	2	1
28. I can collaboratively plan with others.	6	5	4	3	2	1

ATTITUDES TOWARD TEACHNG

Rate each of the following items using a 6-point scale where 6 = Strongly Agree, 5 = Agree, 4 = Slightly Agree, 3 = Slightly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, and 1 = Strongly Disagree.

	SA	A	SLA	SLD	D	SD
29. Teachers have opportunities to become leaders in the field.	6	5	4	3	2	1

ATTITUDES TOWARD TEACHNG

Rate each of the following items using a 6-point scale where 6 = Strongly Agree, 5 = Agree, 4 = Slightly Agree, 3 = Slightly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, and 1 = Strongly Disagree.

	SA	A	SLA	SLD	D	SD
30. Teachers make a difference in students' lives.	6	5	4	3	2	1
31. Teachers are hard working.	6	5	4	3	2	1
32. Teachers are very caring people.	6	5	4	3	2	1
33. Teaching is one of the most important jobs in society.	6	5	4	3	2	1

MY EXPERIENCES WITH TEACHERS

Rate each of the following items using a 6-point scale where 6 = Strongly Agree, 5 = Agree, 4 = Slightly Agree, 3 = Slightly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, and 1 = Strongly Disagree.

	SA	A	SLA	SLD	D	SD
34. One or more of my teachers care about my academic success.	6	5	4	3	2	1
35. One or more of my teachers care about my personal success.	6	5	4	3	2	1
36. One or more of my teachers treat me with respect.	6	5	4	3	2	1
37. I trust one or more of my teachers.	6	5	4	3	2	1
38. One or more of my teachers encourage me.	6	5	4	3	2	1
39. One or more of my teachers believe in me.	6	5	4	3	2	1
40. I look up to one or more of my teachers as a role model.	6	5	4	3	2	1
41. Overall, I have had positive experiences with teachers.	6	5	4	3	2	1

INTENTION TO BE A TEACHER

Rate each of the following items using a 6-point scale where 6 = Strongly Agree, 5 = Agree, 4 = Slightly Agree, 3 = Slightly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, and 1 = Strongly Disagree.

	SA	A	SLA	SLD	D	SD
42. I intend to be a teacher.	6	5	4	3	2	1
43. One day, I will be a teacher.	6	5	4	3	2	1
44. I plan to be a teacher.	6	5	4	3	2	1

MOTIVATION TO BE A TEACHER

Rate each of the following items using a 6-point scale where 6 = Strongly Agree, 5 = Agree, 4 = Slightly Agree, 3 = Slightly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, and 1 = Strongly Disagree.

	SA	A	SLA	SLD	D	SD
45. I have experience teaching something.	6	5	4	3	2	1
46. I understand what teachers do.	6	5	4	3	2	1
47. I have experiences observing teachers.	6	5	4	3	2	1
48. I have experiences helping teachers.	6	5	4	3	2	1
49. I would like to talk with college students about why they chose to become a teacher.	6	5	4	3	2	1
50. I would like to talk with current teachers about why they chose to become a teacher.	6	5	4	3	2	1
51. I would like to talk with teachers who are from the same ethnic group as me about why they chose to become a teacher.	6	5	4	3	2	1

INTEREST IN BEING A TEACHER

Rate each of the following items using a 6-point scale where 6 = Strongly Agree, 5 = Agree, 4 = Slightly Agree, 3 = Slightly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, and 1 = Strongly Disagree.

	SA	A	SLA	SLD	D	SD
52. I am interested in being a teacher.	6	5	4	3	2	1
53. For me, becoming a teacher is an interesting idea.	6	5	4	3	2	1
54. Teaching is a profession that interests me.	6	5	4	3	2	1
55. I am attracted to teaching as a career possibility.	6	5	4	3	2	1
56. I am interested in teaching as a career.	6	5	4	3	2	1

APPENDIX C

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

Self-Efficacy

1. What makes you confident/not confident that you would be a good teacher?
2. Tell me about the skills, knowledge, and experiences that you have that lead you to believe you would/would not be a good teacher.

Knowledge

3. How much knowledge do you possess about what teachers do? Tell me more.
4. What are most important for teachers to know **and** do to be a good teacher?

Attitude

5. What is your attitude toward teaching? Why?
6. How has your attitude toward teaching changed over time because of the project?

Intention

7. Do you intend to be a teacher?
8. Tell me about why/why not you intend to be a teacher?

Motivation

9. What motivates you to become/not become a teacher?
10. What are the biggest factors that motivate you about teaching/not teaching?
11. How does teachers' ethnic background influence your motivation to be a teacher?

Interest

12. How would you describe your interest in teaching?
13. Why are you interested/not interested in teaching?

APPENDIX D

PARENT CONSENT FORM

Dear Parents/Guardians,

My name is Ms. Diaz, and I am currently the ninth-grade Writing teacher at Western School of Science and Technology. I am also a current Doctoral student in the Mary Lou Fulton Teachers College (MLFTC) at Arizona State University, working under the direction of Dr. Ray Buss, a faculty member in MLFTC.

I am working on my dissertation, in which I am examining strategies for increasing interests of high school students to enter the teaching profession. This letter is to request permission for your student to participate in a brief project.

OVERVIEW OF PARTICIPATION SCHEDULE

Students who participate in the project will be required to attend Western School of Science and Technology from June 11 to June 28 on certain days as outlined below. Students only come to Western 2 days for the first 2 weeks, and 3 days for the last week. Student must be present from 8:30 am to 12:30 pm on these days. See the schedule for the days in which your student must attend.

- June 11, Monday
- June 12, Tuesday
- June 21, Thursday
- June 22, Friday
- June 25, Monday
- June 26, Tuesday
- June 27, Wednesday

The typical day will include selected lessons about teaching and learning how to teach and then practicing those new skills from a curriculum, which has been used throughout the country. Additionally, they will participate in observations of teaching; work one-on-one with students and in small groups; and co-teach with a teacher.

OVERVIEW OF BENEFITS FOR PARTICIPATING

Students who participate will benefit by receiving the following:

- 30 hours of community service applied to Western community service requirements
- Breakfast and lunch
- Have the opportunity to be around friends for a few more weeks
- Get a better sense of whether teaching is right for them
- Be entered into a raffle to win a $100 Visa gift card

OVERVIEW OF PROGRAM

By participating in this study, your student will learn what it means to be a teacher by covering topics such as how to design lesson plans, how to teach in front of a class, and

how to manage classroom behavior. Your student will also have the opportunity to work with teachers, help design lessons, and even get to teach part of a lesson.

Your student will take one survey at the beginning of the program and the same survey at the end of the program to measure any changes in aspirations and attitudes towards the teaching profession as a result of their participation in the program. This survey will take about 15-20 minutes each time for a total of 30-40 minutes. Your student may also be randomly chosen to be interviewed at the end of this study, which would take about 20-25 minutes. With your permission, we would like to audio record the interview so we can analyze interviews more thoroughly. Your student's name will not be known. Your student may participate in the workshops and activities without participating in the research portion of the project. Your choice to allow or not allow your student to participate in the project will not affect your student's grades or their standing at school.

CONFIDENTIALITY

Your student's responses will be confidential, and their participation in this study is voluntary. If your student chooses not participate or to withdraw from the study at any time, there will be no penalty.

This study will help to inform possible solutions to support teacher recruitment strategies. There are no foreseeable risks or discomforts to your student's participation.

Results of this study may be used in reports, presentations, or publications, but your student's name will not be known.

If you have any questions concerning the research project, please contact a member of the research team – Ray Buss at Ray.buss@asu.edu or at (602) 543-6343 or Elora Diaz at (520) 358-8368 or at eloraddiaz@gmail.com

Sincerely,

Elora Diaz
Ray Buss

Please return this section to your **advisor or Ms. Diaz no later than Friday, June 1, 2018** to confirm your participation.

___ **Yes,** I give my student, _____, permission to participate in this project.
(student first and last name)

___**No,** I do not give my student, _____, permission to participate in this project.
(student first and last name)

participate in this project.

_____ _____

Signature of Parent or Guardian Date

APPENDIX E

SPANISH VERSION CONSENT FORM

Estimados Padres/Guardianes,

Mi nombre es Srta. Díaz, y actualmente soy la maestra de escritura del noveno grado en la Escuela Western de Ciencia y Tecnología. También soy estudiante doctoral actual en el Colegio Mary Lou Fulton Teachers College (MLFTC, siglas en Inglés) en la Universidad Estatal de Arizona, trabajando bajo la dirección del Dr. Ray Buss, un miembro de la facultad en MLFTC.

Estoy trabajando en mi disertación, en la cual examinará estrategias para incrementar el interés de entrar a la profesión de maestros entre los estudiantes de preparatoria. Esta carta es para pedir permiso para que su estudiante participe en el estudio.

VISIÓN DE CONJUNTO DEL HORARIO DE PARTICIPACIÓN

Estudiantes quienes participen en el estudio serán requeridos asistir a la Escuela Western de Ciencia y Tecnología del 11 de Junio al 27 de Junio en los siguientes ciertos días. Los estudiantes solamente vendrán a Western 2 días en las primeras 2 semanas, y 3 días en la última semana. Su estudiante debe estar presente de 8:30 am a 12:30 pm en estos días. Vea el horario siguiente para los días en cuales su estudiante debe asistir.

- Junio 11, Lunes
- Junio 12, Martes
- Junio 21, Jueves
- June 22, Viernes
- Junio 25, Lunes
- Junio 26, Martes
- Junio 27, Miercoles

Un día típico incluye lecciones seleccionadas sobre la enseñanza y aprendizaje de como ensenar y después practicar esas nuevas habilidades de un curriculum, cual ha sido usado a través del país. Adicionalmente, participarán en observaciones de enseñanzas; trabajaran individualmente con estudiantes y en pequeños grupos; y enseñaran junto a un maestro(a).

VISIÓN DE CONJUNTO DE BENEFICIOS DE PARTICIPAR

Estudiantes quienes participen beneficiaran recibiendo lo siguiente:

- 20 horas de servicio comunitario aplicadas a los requisitos de servicio comunitario de Western
- Desayuno y almuerzo
- Tener la oportunidad de estar con amistades por más semanas
- Tener un mejor sentido sí ser maestro(a) es para ellos
- Ser sometidos a una rifa para ganar una tarjeta de regalo Visa de $100

VISIÓN DE CONJUNTO DEL PROGRAMA

Al participar en este estudio, su estudiante aprenderá lo que significa ser profesor al cubrir temas tales como diseñar planes de lecciones, cómo enseñar frente a una clase y cómo manejar el comportamiento en el salon. Su estudiante también tendrá la oportunidad de trabajar con maestros, ayudar a diseñar lecciones, e incluso llegar a enseñar parte de una lección.

Su estudiante tomará una encuesta al comienzo del programa y la misma encuesta al final del programa para medir cualquier cambio en las aspiraciones y actitudes hacia la profesión de profesores como resultado de su participación en el programa. Esta encuesta tomará aproximadamente 15-20 minutos cada vez, para una totalidad de 30-40 minutos. Su estudiante tal vez sea elegido al azar para ser entrevistado a la conclusión del estudio, cual tomará alrededor de 20-25 minutos. Con su permiso, nos gustaría grabar el audio de la entrevista para poder analizar las entrevistas más a fondo. El nombre de su estudiante no se hará saber. Su estudiante puede participar en los talleres y actividades sin participar en la porción de investigación del proyecto. Su elección de permitir o no permitir a su estudiante participar en el proyecto no afectará los grados de su alumno ni su posición en la escuela.

CONFIDENCIALIDAD

Las respuestas de su alumno serán confidenciales y su participación en este estudio es voluntaria. Si su estudiante decide no participar o retirarse del estudio en cualquier momento, no habrá penalización.

Este estudio ayudará a informar posibles soluciones para apoyar las estrategias de reclutamiento de maestros. No hay riesgos o incomodidades previsibles para su participación.
Los resultados de este estudio pueden usarse en informes, presentaciones o publicaciones, pero no se conocerá el nombre de su estudiante.

Si tiene alguna pregunta sobre el estudio de investigación, contáctese con un miembro del equipo de investigación: Ray Buss al (602) 543-6343 o Ray.buss@asu.edu o a Elora Diaz al (520) 358-8368 o eloraddiaz@gmail.com

Sinceramente,

Elora Diaz

Ray Buss

Favor de regresar esta sección su consejero o a la Srta. Diaz no más tarde de **Viernes 1 de Junio**, 2018 para confirmar su participación.

___ **Si,** Yo le doy permiso a mi estudiante, _____, participar en este estudio
(primer nombre y apellido)

___**No,** Yo no le doy permiso a mi estudiante, _____,

(primer nombre y apellido)

participar en este estudio

_____ _____

Firm de Padre/Guardian Fecha